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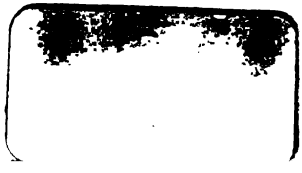

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INDEX

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TO

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOLUME 50

March-May 1908

American Painting, The Story of (See Painting).
As Others See Us (See United States, A Century of Foreign Criticism on).
BALLOU WILLIAM HOSEA. Edward Drinker Cope, 100.
Barton, Clara, 138.
BROOKS, JOHN GRAHAM. A Philosopher as Mediator, 27; A Socialist Critic, 42; Signs of Progress, 176; (concluded), 342.
C. L. S. C. Readers, Greetings to, from College Presidents: President Welch of Ohio Wesleyan, 141; President Craighead of Tulane University, 299.
C. L. S. C. Round Table: A Dutch Chautauqua in Africa, 143; Dr. H. R. Palmer, 147; Death of Chautauqua's Treasurer, 148; Tennyson's Ulysses, 149; Programs, 150; News from Readers and Circles, 154; Outline of American Literature, 158; International Peace Day, 301; Indications of Progress, 302; Nobel Peace Prize for 1907, 302; Other Recipients of the Nobel Peace Prize, 303; The Coming Modern European Year in the C. L. S. C., 303; Class of 1908, 303; C. L. S. C. in the Far East, 305; Greeting from the President of 1911, 306; Programs, 309; News from Readers and Circles, 313; Tennyson Class, 440; Notice to Class of 1908, 441; Chautauqua in Korea, 441; Review of American Painting, 442; To the Class of 1898, 442; Programs, 445; Questions, 446; News from Readers and Circles, 447; Reference Outline of American Painting, 456.
Burbank, Luther, 407.
Child Labor and Vagrancy, 516.
Cope, Edward Drinker, 100.
DAVIS, PHILIP. Child Labor and Vagrancy, 516.
DURLAND, KELLOGG. Immigrants on the Land: I. Italian Colonists, 89; II. Jewish Farmers, 248.
FISKE, CHARLES HENRY. Modern Portrait Painting, 56.
Fiske, John, 266.
GRABO, CARL H. The Poetry of William Vaughn Moody, 274.
Highways and Byways: The Presidential Candidates, 3; Labor Safety and Interstate Commerce, 5; Postal Savings Banks and Guaranteed Deposits, 6; Business and Finance after the Panic, 8; Hull House and Modern Charity, 10; Cuban Self-Government in 1909, 19; The March of Manhood Suffrage, 21; Counter Revolution in Russia, 22; Note and Comment, 24; Recent Supreme Court Labor Decisions, 163; Congress and the Reform Movement, 165; Our Treaties of Arbitration, 167; Municipal Government by Commission, 168; Tyranny and Assassination in Portugal, 170; Party Politics and Social Reform in England, 171; The Taft and Hughes Candidacies, 173; Note and Comment, 175; The Independence Party, 323; Foreshadowing Party Issues, 325; Labor, the Law, and the Courts, 327; Esperanto Congress at Chautauqua, 329; The New Michigan

Constitution, 333; State Rights and Federal Power, 335; Prohibition and Interstate Commerce, 336; Woman's Labor and the State, 338; Note and Comment, 340.
How Connecticut Got Her Woman Factory Inspector, 425.
Howe, Julia Ward, 120.
Immigrants on the Land: I. Italian Colonists, 89; II. Jewish Farmers, 248.
INGRAHAM, HENRY. A Recent Development in American Music, 126.
Italian Colonists (See Immigrants).
James, William, 403.
Jewish Farmers, 248.
Library Shelf: Edmund Clarence Stedman, 132; Cooper as a Critic of His Countrymen, 134; William Vaughn Moody's "Gloucester Moors," 287; Whistler vs. Ruskin, 289; Some Nature Poetry, 433; Peace Literature, 436.
MacDowell, Edward Alexander, 296.
Moody, The Poetry of William Vaughn, 274.
Music, A Recent Development in American, 126.
Painting, The Story of American: VI. Modern Portrait Painting, 56; VII. Contemporary Figure Painting, 201; VIII. Contemporary Mural Painting, 229; IX. Contemporary Landscape Painting, 369.
PERRY, THOMAS F. John Fiske, 266.
Philosopher As Mediator, A (Hugo Münsterberg), 27.
PORTER, DELIA LYMAN. How Connecticut Got Her Woman Factory Inspector, 425.
Scientists, Some Great American: VII. Edward Drinker Cope, 100; VIII. John Fiske, 266; IX. Luther Burbank, 407.
SERVISS, GARRETT P. Luther Burbank, 407.
Signs of Progress, 176.
Socialist Critic, A (H. G. Wells), 42.
St. Gaudens, Augustus, 430.
Talk About Books, 317, 462.
United States, A Century of Foreign Criticism on: XIV. A Philosopher as Mediator, 27; XV. A Social Critic, 42; XVI. Signs of Progress, 176; (concluded), 342.
Vesper Hour, The, 118, 284.
VINCENT, CHANCELLOR JOHN H. The Vesper Hour, 118, 284.
ZUG, GEORGE BREED. Contemporary Figure Painting, 201; Contemporary Mural Painting, 229; Contemporary Landscape Painting, 369.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Painting, American: "Autumn Gold," H. H. Breckenridge, 59; "Low Tide," C. T. Chapman, 60; "A Squally Day," C. T. Chapman, 61; "An Evening in May," D. Tryon, 62; "Bringing Home the Cattle," T. Moran, 63; Portrait of Edward Robinson, J. S. Sargent, 64; Dorothy and Her Sister, W. M. Chase, 65; "Lady in Gray," J. A. M. Whistler, 66; Portrait of Professor Leslie Miller, Thomas Eakins, 67; Portrait of Lady, F. W. Benson, 68; Portrait of Artist's Wife, A. Q. Collins, 69; Carmencita, J. S. Sargent, 70; Walt Whitman, J. W. Alexander, 71; Portrait of Mrs. and Miss Wiles, I. R. Wiles, 72; "The Gilt Shawl," Louis Loeb, 73; "Young Woman in Black," R. Henri, 74; "Portrait of Lady in Black," W. M. Chase, 75; Mrs. Carl Meyer and Children, J. S. Sargent, 76; Portrait of Cyrus W. Field, D. Huntington, 77; "Lady in Black," J. S.

Mowbray, 78; "Portrait," Seymour Thomas, 79; Portrait of Artist's Mother, J. A. M. Whistler, 80; Apotheosis of Pittsburg, J. W. Alexander, 162; "The Questioner of the Sphinx," Elihu Vedder, 205; "Mercy's Dream," Daniel Huntington, 206; Illustration for Omar Khayyám, Elihu Vedder, 207; "A Quartette," William T. Dannat, 208; The Ameya, R. T. Blum, 209; "Temple of the Winds," Louis Loeb, 210; "The Last Voyage," E. L. Weeks, 211; "In the Garden," G. De F. Brush, 212; "Caritas," Abbott Thayer, 213; "Mother and Child," G. De F. Brush, 214; "The Seer," Sargent Kendall, 215; "Aurora," Will H. Low, 216; "A Cozy Corner," F. D. Millet, 217; "The Coppersmith," E. M. Ward, 218; "The Caress," Mary Cassatt, 219; Allegro," F. B. Williams, 220; "El Jaleo," J. S. Sargent, 221; "Across the Common," C. S. Pearce, 222; Prophets, J. S. Sargent, 231; "The Ascension," J. La Farge, 232; "Halt of the Wise Men," J. La Farge, 233; "Religion," C. S. Pearce, 234; "Melpomene," E. Simmons, 235; "Sources of Mississippi," E. H. Blashfield, 236; "Uses of Wealth," E. H. Blashfield, 237; "Oral Tradition," J. W. Alexander, 238; "Printing Press," J. W. Alexander, 239; "Isabella and the Pot of Basil," J. W. Alexander, 240; "Autumn Oaks," G. Inness, 377; "Twilight," C. H. Davis, 378; "Glimpse of the Sea," A. H. Wyant, 379; "Wood Interior," H. W. Ranger, 380; "Docks at Noank," H. W. Ranger, 381; "New England Farm in Winter," D. W. Tryon, 382; "Moonlight on the Lagoons," A. Fournier, 383; "Church Nocturne—Old Lyme," 384; "Lorelei," C. Hassam, 385; "Midwinter Thaw," W. E. Schofield, 386; "Winter in Picardy," W. E. Schofield, 387; "Center Bridge," E. W. Redfield, 388; "Fallen Tree," E. W. Redfield, 389; "Blue Gale," P. Dougherty, 390; "The Cleft," P. Dougherty, 391; "Mid-Winter," W. L. Metcalf, 392; "Haunted House," C. F. Browne, 397; "November," C. F. Browne, 398; "Oaks in Autumn," C. F. Browne, 399; Stewart Castle, C. F. Browne, 400.

United States in the Light of Foreign Criticism (As Others See Us): Development of the Steamship, pp. 187, 188, 189, 193, 199. Railroad Scene in 1842, 190; First Locomotive on Mohawk Valley Railroad, 198; Backwoodsmen, 346; Stage Coach Days, 348; Erie Canal in the old days, 349; Flat-Boat on Mississippi, 350; Old New York Tombs, 352; Philadelphia Bastile, 353; Emmigrants Attacked by Comanches, 357; Prairie Fire, 357; Detroit in 1815, 363; San Francisco in 1848, 363; Washington in 1830, 364.

Whistler, head of, 299; painting, "The Falling Rocket," 291.

PORTRAITS.

Barton, Clara, 139.
Burbank, Luther, 406.
Fiske, John, 269.
Howe, Mrs. Julia Ward, 121.
James, William, 405.
MacDowell, Edmund, 18, 297.
Meredith, George, 18.
Palmer, Dr. H. R., 147.
Privat, M. Edmond, 331.
Smith, Charles Emory, 18.
St. Gaudens, Augustus, 322.
Stedman Edmund Clarence, 2.
Walworth, Warren F., 148.
Zamenhof, Dr. L., 331.

The CHAUTAUQUAN

Hugo Munsterberg: A Philosopher as Mediator

H. G. Wells: A Socialist Critic

Modern Portrait Painting

Edward Drinker Cope: A Great American Scientist

A Recent Development in American Music

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe

The late Edmund Clarence Stedman, poet and financier. (See "Library Shelf," page 132.)

THE CHAUTAUQUAN
Vol. 50 MARCH, 1908. Vol. 1.

WHILE there have been no dramatic developments in the national political situation, things have by no means stood still. The campaign for the party nominations for the presidency has scarcely been interrupted by the work of Congress. Each "favorite son" has either gained or lost some ground, and the situation generally is undoubtedly a little clearer.

In the Democratic party the efforts to displace Mr. Bryan have continued, but without any evidence of success. Powerful semi-Democratic and independent organs are still "booming" Governor Johnson of Minnesota and arguing that with him as leader the Democratic party would be almost assured of victory at the polls, for all the Scandinavians, who are believed to be mostly Republicans, would vote for him, as well as tens of thousands of conservative "anti-Roosevelt" men. In the South Mr. Bryan is attacked by radical followers and partisans of Mr. Hearst, the New York editor-politician, and it is constantly reiterated that only apathy and fatalism prevent the organization of a strong opposition to the Bryan candidacy. In the East Mr. Bryan is criticized for his alleged radical and heretical views on railroad ownership, the referendum, the initiative, injunctions, etc. But even his opponents admit that "the rank and file" are in favor of Mr. Bryan's nomination and that the national convention will probably name him on the first ballot.

In the Republican party the only candidacy that has notably made headway is that of Secretary Taft, who has

delivered a number of important addresses since his return from his Philippine-Japanese-Russian trip. Mr. Taft has discussed the recent panic and the responsibility therefor, the need of continuing the legal and legislative war against corporate dishonesty and graft, the relation between capital and labor, the use and abuse of the injunction, the boycott and violence as weapons of organized labor, and the corresponding blacklist and coercion employed by employers opposed to unions, our duty as a nation to the Filipinos, and other vital topics. He has taken certain attitudes that have been criticised in some quarters; but it is admitted generally that, on the whole, he has strengthened his candidacy by those public appearances and elaborate presentations of his opinions. It may be said, briefly, that he favors continuation of what is essential in the Roosevelt policies; that he would limit the use of the injunction to some extent—requiring notice to the defendant, and defining by statute what may be enjoined; that he sympathizes with the general aims of the labor movement while condemning boycotting, intimidation, and violence in strikes or other disputes; that he would promote conciliation and arbitration and full publicity of differences between employers and employed; that he would grant free trade to the Philippines; that he would have the tariff revised and modernized at the earliest opportunity.

Secretary Taft's leading rival is still Governor Hughes, though there is a feeling in some quarters that, by not pushing his claims and promoting his candidacy, the New York governor has "lost his chance." He is charged with ignoring party workers and refusing to recognize the fact that the duty of a state executive is to lead his party as well as to give the people an honest and efficient administration. He has attended to his duties with distinguished and acknowledged success. If that is not sufficient to make him a strong candidate, then, apparently, he will philosophically accept the situation.

In Ohio Senator Foraker has been active in opposition to Secretary Taft, and it is conceded that he will have some state delegates in the national convention. Outside of Ohio there is as yet no sign of interest in the Foraker candidacy.

Labor, Safety and Interstate Commerce

It is not often that the federal Supreme Court renders a decision so important as that which it recently handed down in the so-called employers' liability cases. It may be compared with such memorable decisions as those of the income tax and "colonial" cases. The court was again divided and subdivided, and several opinions were necessary to give expression to the conflicting views of the justices. This indicates the complexity and the novelty of the questions which the case involved.

By virtue of its power to regulate interstate commerce, Congress, in 1906, passed an employers' liability act, or an act creating new liabilities toward their employes by the common carriers engaged in commerce between any two or more states. The President had strongly urged the principle of the act, and as warmly defended the latter since it became a law. It made employers liable for all damages that might result from the negligence of officers, agents, or fellow-employes, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency, due to negligence, in any engine, machine, appliance, works, etc., of any employer. It also greatly limited in favor of labor the doctrine of contributory negligence, and left all questions of negligence and responsibility to the jury.

The act was regarded at the time as an advanced piece of reform legislation, a sign of the times and integral part of the Roosevelt program. It excited a spirited controversy, but public sentiment undoubtedly approved it as a measure of simple justice to labor.

When cases under it reached the federal district courts, two declared it unconstitutional, while three upheld it. The

courts that declared it invalid did so for these reasons chiefly: that it was not, by its terms, limited to employes actually engaged in interstate commerce but applied to all employes of common carriers doing both local and interstate business, and, further, that the creation or definition of liability, the regulation of the contractual relations between carriers and employers, cannot be properly regarded as "commerce," which alone Congress has the power to regulate.

Some of these cases were appealed, and the Supreme Court, after thorough consideration, annulled the act on the first ground mentioned. That is to say, an analysis of the several opinions seem to indicate that if another act were passed, limited to employes actually engaged in interstate commerce, the majority of the court would sustain it, though some of the justices believe that an accident is not "commerce" and that to fix liability and prescribe rules for the trial of damage and accident suits is not to regulate commerce. Such a bill has already been presented and will probably be passed, so that the court will have an opportunity to deal with the essential question whether the power to regulate commerce includes the power to deal with responsibility for accidents and liability for injuries sustained in the service. The argument in favor of a liberal liability law is that it not only properly compensates the injured workman, or his family, but conduces to the safety of travel, and that since Congress has the power to prescribe mechanical safety devices for the instrumentalities of interstate commerce, it should be held to possess the power to enforce moral safety devices—rules tending to make employes careful, contented, and faithful.

Postal Savings Banks and Guaranteed Deposits

Largely as the result of the recent financial panic, the runs on banks and the extraordinary hoarding of money, Mr. Bryan and others have revived an old suggestion to

this effect—that the government should guarantee all the deposits in the national banks by creating a fund for that purpose, taxing the banks to maintain that fund, and paying all depositors of failed banks in full from the proceeds of that tax. It is argued that since the note-holders are under our banking system fully protected against loss it is but right that the depositors should be similarly protected; that the guaranteeing of deposits would avert runs and panic in the future and thus prove as beneficial to the banks themselves as it would be to the depositors and the customers of such institutions, and that experience shows that very little loss would actually have to be borne by the combined banks, especially as the sounder ones would watch and supervise the less careful ones to prevent loose methods and unsafe investments.

The proposal has aroused great interest. Many business-men and bankers have declared the idea sound and practical, but the generality of the bankers appear to think that it would do more harm than good, in that it would abolish deterrents to loose and imprudent banking practices and weaken the incentives to careful and conservative methods. However, several states are discussing the proposal, and Oklahoma, the newest member of the American union, has already enacted a statute for the compulsory guaranteeing of depositors in state banks. The same act permits national banks to bring themselves under its provisions, with the permission of the federal authorities.

The opponents of the plan think that no private insurance company could afford to undertake the guaranteeing of the deposits in the national banks alone, to say nothing of the state and private banks; but this argument is eagerly seized upon by the other side as one in favor of the idea. If, they say, the danger of losing deposits even in the well-controlled national banks is too great to warrant a commercial insurance company to assume the risk, then it is clear that we have not done our duty toward the depositors and that additional protection is needed by them.

In connection with this discussion it has been pointed out by some neutral editors that, at any rate, both the advocates and critics of the deposit-guaranty plan ought to support the postal savings bank proposal which has been revived by the present Postmaster General, Von Meyer. The depositors who incur the greatest danger of loss are those who intrust their savings to the less known savings banks—institutions that bid for the patronage of poor workmen and factory girls, servants, foreigners, etc. Thousands of poor, struggling persons suffer when one such bank fails, through dishonesty or recklessness or both. Should not, then, it is asked, the government first care for this class of depositors? Moreover, thousands of unskilled workmen are terribly careless with their money because they have no saving facilities at hand. The postal bank would be everywhere; the private savings bank can be established only in communities of certain size and degree of activity. Laborers in camps, on railroads, in isolated mills will not travel miles on pay day to deposit their surplus; they are tempted to spend it in saloons or on luxuries and amusements. When hard times come they are destitute and dependent, whereas, had postal banks existed, they might have accumulated comfortable balances against the proverbial rainy day.

To postal savings banks, which have been a success in many European countries, there are few objections that are not narrow and selfish. The present Congress is not expected to provide for them, but the Postoffice Department will continue to argue in favor of the comparatively simple and absolutely safe scheme of a government savings bank in the interest of the poor and inexperienced.

Business and Finance After the Panic

The last traces of the October-November panic, stringency and business crisis practically disappeared by the middle of January. The New York banks reported a con-

siderable excess over their legal reserve; the premium on currency, even in Wall street, was a thing of the past; all over the country the banks were resuming the payments of lawful money and retiring the extra-legal emergency circulation—certificates, clearing-house checks, etc.; and the country banks were once more sending their surpluses to New York and other financial markets for use in various enterprises, drawing interest thereon. Stock speculation has remained rather dull, but that is an effect which no one regrets. Generally speaking, the financial difficulty has passed into history.

Business, however, is still suffering from the sudden and sharp check given it by the panic. While many factories have reopened their doors and in various lines considerable activity is manifested, it is estimated that from ten to fourteen per cent. of the wageworkers are still unemployed in industrial centers. Special relief measures have had to be adopted in New York, Chicago, Boston and elsewhere in order to prevent starvation and exposure of the destitute among the unemployed, and in some respects the situation sadly reminds social and philanthropic workers of the panic of 1893.

However, business men, with few exceptions, expect the improvement in trade and commerce to be reasonably rapid henceforth. While no "boom" is likely, spring should bring employment to most of those who are now idle. The building trades will revive, railroads will resume construction and improvement work, and the lumber camps will be busy again. There seems to be little reason to fear a really prolonged industrial depression.

As a result of the panic the paramount question before Congress is currency reform. Several bills have been introduced, some "radical," and some "simple" and moderate. The Fowler bill and the bill fathered by the American Bankers' Association provide for the issue of notes against the general assets of the banks under various re-

strictions. The latter bill attempts less than that of Congressman Fowler and more than that of Senator Aldrich, which, indeed, is regarded by many as the irreducible minimum of currency reform. The Aldrich bill provides for the issue of emergency bank notes against certain state, municipal and railroad bonds, such notes to be taxed at the rate of six per cent., to insure their prompt retirement. But in the West there is much opposition to this measure, both in principle and on practical grounds. It is declared to be unsound and at the same time wholly in the interest of New York's speculative elements. All agree that Congress ought to enact some currency legislation at this session, to reassure the people and make future panics less likely. But the wide and serious differences of opinion that have already arisen over the question are a formidable obstacle in the way of Congress. However, some compromise is expected that will be reasonably acceptable to all sides.

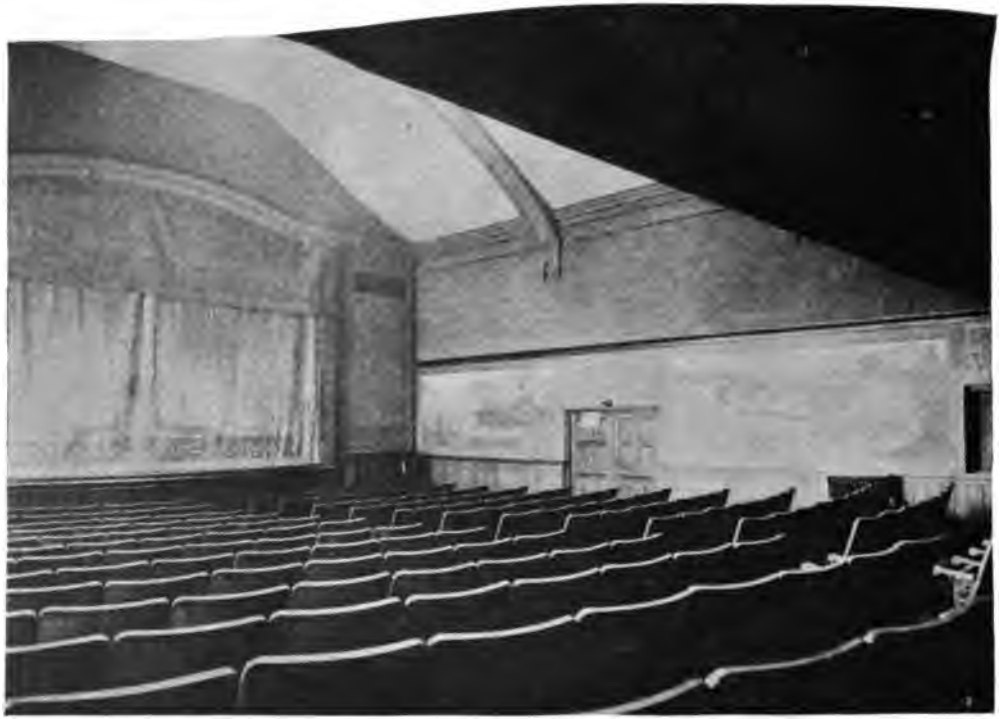
Hull House and Modern Charity

The Hull House Year-Book, from which we copy a few illustrations, indicates further expansion and increased usefulness of that remarkably successful social settlement. Buildings have been added, the attendance at the various classes has increased, and the activities have grown more various. Other settlements have a like gratifying record of progress to report, and that admirable weekly, *Charities*, now publishes monthly a summary and review of the more interesting features and developments of settlement activity.

But perhaps the most significant fact of the year is the closer understanding between such social settlements as Hull House and the leading charitable associations. At several recent charity conferences experienced workers and public men dwelt on the deepened and broadened conception of charity that prevails today as compared with the

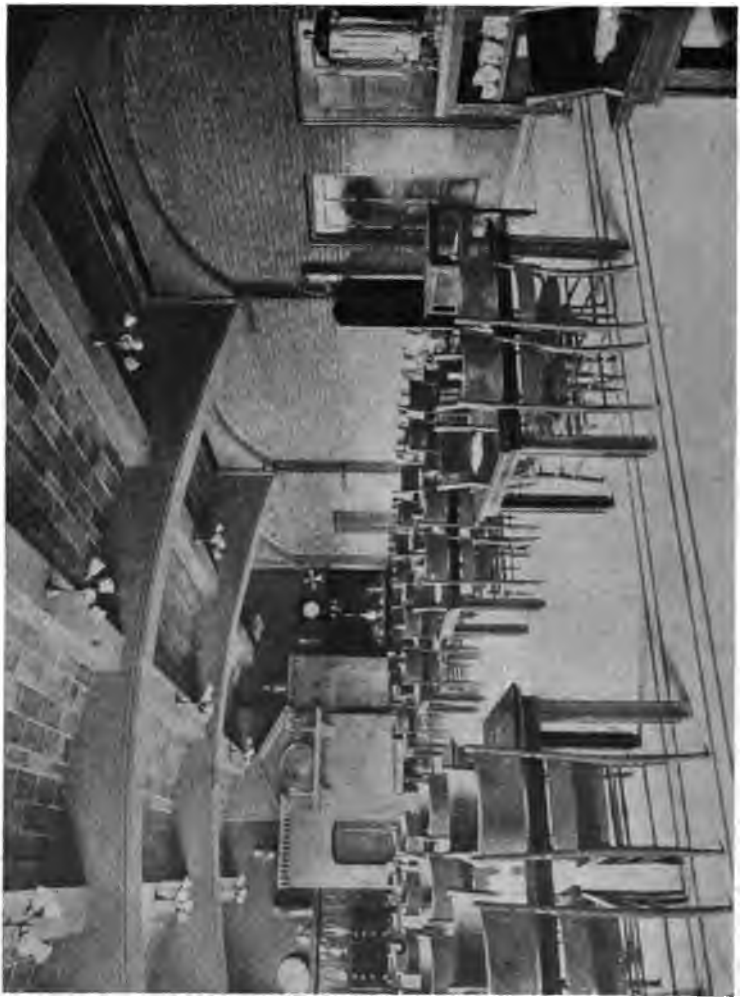
Halsted Street view of Hull-House, looking north.

Apartment House in foreground—Men's Club—Butler Building—Hull-House entrance and Children's Building.



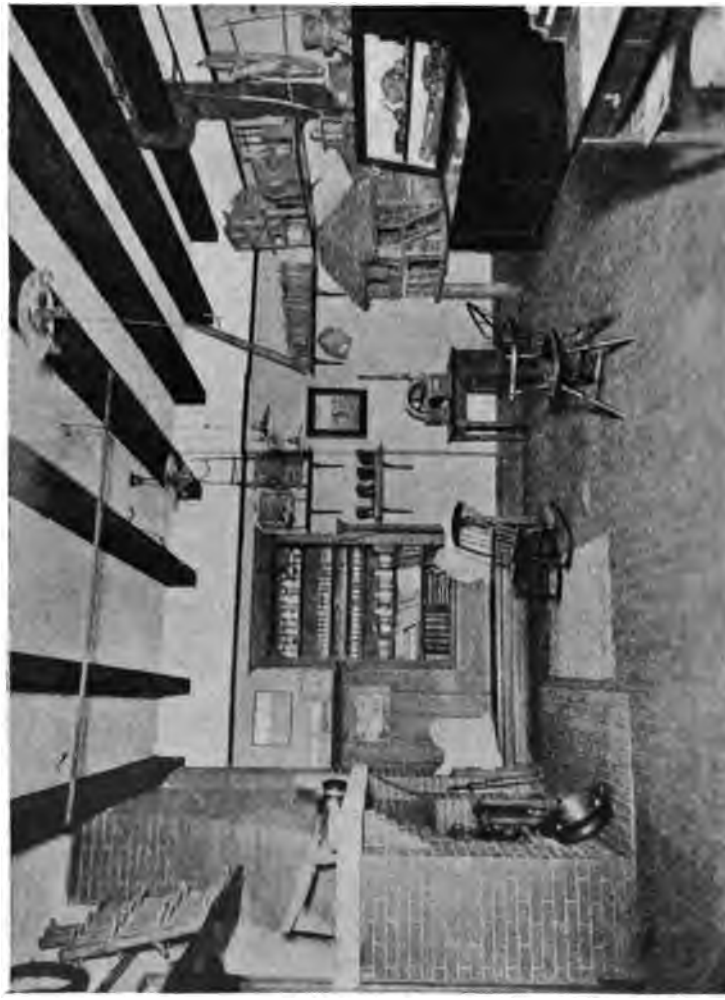
View of Hull-House Theater—Mural Decorations Illustrating Lives of Tolstoy and Lincoln.

Interior of Bowen Hall, Hull-House.



Hull-House Coffee House.

Library of Boys' Club, Hull-House.



End of Kitchen, Hull-House, Showing Primitive Implements.

End of Textile Room, Labor Museum, Hull-House.

The late Edward Macdowell, celebrated American composer. The late Charles Emory Smith, one-time Postmaster General of the United States. George Meredith, famous English Novelist, who recently celebrated his eightieth birthday.

Generous Bill: "Now remember, Hughie, just one little bit off th' end!"

—From Cleveland Plain Dealer.

original view—the view that charity meant pecuniary aid, free bread and soup, etc. Today the progressive charity organizations take active and earnest interest in the work which Hull House and other settlements were organized to do—the work of social redemption, social prevention, and social education and elevation. They provide useful economic legislation, sanitation and hygiene (individual and social), and the study of poverty as a social disease. They maintain schools for the training of social workers; they coöperate with health boards and tenement-house inspectors; they realize the need of fighting congestion, overwork, underpay, and oppression of women and children employed in factories and shops.

This broader conception is undoubtedly largely due to the educational efforts of the social settlements and their organizers and heads—above all, perhaps, to Miss Jane Addams herself, whose books, lectures and articles expound to tens of thousands the principles which she applies practically, to the utmost possible extent, at Hull House. There is no longer any disposition in settlement circles to sneer at charity; on the other hand, the charity organizations are glad to acknowledge their debt of gratitude to the settlements and to coöperate with them along several lines. To these lines, and to other developments of the settlement idea, we shall advert on future occasions.

Cuban Self-Government in 1909

President Roosevelt has "directed" that the installation of the next government of Cuba, and the turning over of the island to the natives, take place not later than February 1, 1909. This announcement was somewhat unexpected, but only as regards the date. It had been understood that the surrender of the government by the Americans to Cuban officials would occur some time in 1909, but the President's natural desire to make this event part of the record of his

second term led him, it is thought, to fix on a date as early as February 1.

It is the belief of the American authorities in Cuba, and of private observers as well, that it will be entirely safe to surrender control of affairs to a native government at the date named. The island has made great progress since the resignation of Palma, the collapse of the first experiment in self-government, and the second intervention of the United States. Industry and trade have been stimulated, brigandage has been suppressed, the finances of the island put on a sound basis, and political differences have been lifted to a higher plane. There is still much discontent, and there are large interests, chiefly foreign, that would delay indefinitely the American evacuation of the island. There are selfish political schemers, moreover, who are unwilling to bow to majority rule, and Cubans themselves have admitted that with $3,000 a "revolution" can be started in certain districts of the island. It may be that the retirement of the American forces will again be followed by factional quarrels, disorder, and rebellion. But the fact is that if this danger will be present next year, it will be present the year after, and the year after that. As we stand committed to the policy of surrendering the island to the natives for self-government, and have done or shall have done everything—by a census, by a revision of the electoral and other laws, by repressive measures, to lay the foundation of a stable and orderly native government, the best course is to withdraw at the first reasonable opportunity. The problems of the future must be left to the future.

However, though the annexation of Cuba is desired by fewer and fewer Americans, it is felt generally that if the second Cuban experiment in self-government shall fail, and American intervention shall again be demanded, that intervention may have permanent consequences in the shape of a protectorate or an arrangement for American control of the army and constabulary of Cuba.

Meantime the island will be busy with preparations for municipal, provisional, and general elections. The presidential and congressional elections will be held in December, and an effort will be made to prevent any dishonest voting, on the one hand, and to induce all qualified citizens to participate in the contest, so as to insure full expression of popular sentiment and the election of a government representative of a genuine majority.

The March of Manhood Suffrage

The kingdom of Prussia, the most conservative of the constituents of the German empire, has been the scene of great demonstrations in favor of direct, open, manhood suffrage. The question is very old; even Bismarck, a generation ago, admitted that the Prussian electoral system was the most clumsy, absurd, and reactionary in Europe. But the privileged classes that are benefited politically by its manifest injustice, have so far successfully resisted every movement for reform. The socialists have become powerful as a party, yet they have been unable to send a single deputy to the Prussian chamber of deputies. The workmen have acquired influence and formed strong unions, yet the electoral system practically disfranchises them. The aristocracy and the mercantile and professional classes control the landtag and its legislation, and the government almost invariably obtains what it wishes from a body so constituted.

The Prussian system divides the taxpayers into three classes and gives as much power to the few wealthy taxpayers as it does to the masses of small ones. The landed aristocrats and the middle classes always combine in the electoral colleges and prevent the lower classes from obtaining any representation at all. Moreover, the voting is open, and many workmen and others are restrained by fear from choosing electors who would reflect their sentiments and champion their rights and interests.

The present movement for direct manhood suffrage and secret voting in Prussia is more significant than any previous agitation. It is, in fact, assured of a measure of success in advance. For the Prussian government through von Buelow, has announced the intention of proposing, or granting, certain changes in the system. The changes are not to be radical, and the government affects to be utterly indifferent to the demonstrations of the socialists and workmen. But any concession that may be made must of necessity be a change for the better, a step toward a wide and just democratic suffrage. Why the autocratic Prussian government has at last recognized the need of electoral reform is not officially explained. The situation, however, is tolerably clear. In Austria universal suffrage has been granted, and the first results of this reform are of the happiest. Hungary is committed to the same great reform. Russia, in spite of her reactionary and counter-revolutionary tendencies, has joined the countries that are governed by popularly elected assemblies. In Germany herself the imperial government is obliged to depend for its majority in the Reichstag on the liberals and radical groups, and these sympathize with the demand for political reform. The imperial chancellor, it is understood, has distinctly promised electoral reform in Prussia and greater freedom of assembly and association to the combination which has supported him since the last general election. The empire was founded on universal suffrage, and what is safe in imperial politics cannot be unsafe in Prussian affairs.

Counter-Revolution in Russia

In the words of Prof. Milyoukov, member of the douma, leader of the constitutional democratic party, editor and author, Russia has attained a sort of "political equilibrium." The terrorists are still active, but the "revolution" has been suppressed. The government no longer fears serious revolts and uprisings in the army and navy;

pillage and arson in the villages are sporadic instead of almost general, thousands of leaders of workers and peasants are in prison or in Siberia; the censorship has been restored almost everywhere. Finally, the government, by means of its illegal suffrage scheme, has secured a subservient and accommodating douma—a douma that makes no violent speeches or anti-ministerial demonstrations, that introduces no radical bills, and that avoids most of the "unpleasant" subjects.

It will be remembered that during the reign of violence and terror the government iterated and reiterated the cry, "Reform after pacification." It professed to be in entire sympathy with the liberal and constitutional movement; it admitted the need of far-reaching reforms, political and industrial; it talked of regeneration and elevation for Russia. Only the disorder, the anarchy, the criminal operations of these or those elements stood in the way of sincere coöperation between the court and the liberals. Now that pacification is a fact, the reform promises are forgotten. The ministers have introduced no important bills in the douma, and the moderates, to say nothing of the conservatives and reactionaries, knowing the real feelings of the government, likewise refrain from raising vital and fundamental questions.

Everything, in fact, is practically where it was prior to the stormy events of the revolutionary and war period. Despotism reigns; law and orderly procedure are unknown; the bureaucracy is in full control. The douma exists, but it does not dare undertake anything of moment. It is expected to ratify budgets, indorse foreign-loan proposals, approve such "practical" bills as the ministers offer, and taboo the word "constitution." Should it fail to do any of these things, it might be dissolved as was each of its two predecessors. It may be long-lived if it modestly accepts an inferior place and attends to routine business.

This is the "equilibrium" Russia has attained. The gov-

ernment has undone the work of the revolutionary period and reform remains a dream, an unrealized ideal. The government has so far "liquidated" the revolution that it has tried over fifty social democrats, members of the second douma, for treason on the flimsiest grounds and about one hundred and seventy constitutional democrats, leaders and members of the first douma, for signing and circulating a manifesto advising passive resistance to the autocracy. This spells boldness and confidence. But will not the reactionaries overreach themselves and upset the very unstable equilibrium? Are they not unduly presuming on popular ignorance, fear and division? Will Russia endure autocracy and bureaucracy for another generation?

Note and Comment

Charities for January 4 contains two notable articles: one, the record of an investigation of the recent terrible mining disaster at Monongah, West Virginia; the other, the first installment of a series of articles, "The Effect of Emigration upon Italy." The last is by an Italian-American, Antonio Mangano, who has made recently a tour of investigation through Italy. The immigration problem is two sided. The Italian aspect of the question should not be ignored by American students of the question.

A new artist and a new art are discussed in *The Century Magazine* for February. The artist is an American born of German parents, Edward J. Steichen by name; his art, photography handled in a way which allies it more closely with painting than with the usual mechanical processes of photography. In this newest of the arts Mr. Steichen has achieved some remarkable effects both in portrait and landscape work and his accomplishments have done much to aid photography in its claim to recognition as one of the creative arts. Mr. Steichen is also a painter of note and resorts to photography simply for the reason that by it he secures effects impossible in painting.

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe in her "Reminiscences" tells of a public dinner given to Charles Dickens in New York, when Washington Irving presided: "Upon him devolved the duty of inaugurating the proceedings by an address of welcome to the distinguished guest. People who sat near me whispered, 'He'll break down—he always does.' Mr. Irving rose and uttered a sentence or two. His friends interrupted him by applause, which was intended to encourage him, but which entirely overthrew his self-

possession. He hesitated, stammered, and sat down, saying, 'I cannot go on.' It was an embarrassing and painful moment, but Mr. John Duer, an eminent lawyer, came to his friend's assistance and with suitable remarks proposed the health of Charles Dickens to which Mr. Dickens promptly responded. This he did in his happiest manner, covering Mr. Irving's defeat by a glowing eulogy of his literary merits."

HER FIRST VISIT TO ENGLAND IN THE FORTIES.

"The Rev. Sydney Smith was one of the first to honor our introduction with a call. His reputation as a wit was already world-wide, and he was certainly one of the idols of London society. In appearance he was hardly prepossessing. He was short and squat of figure, with a rubicund countenance redeemed by a pair of twinkling eyes. When we first saw him, my husband was suffering from the result of a trifling accident. Mr. Smith said, 'Dr. Howe, I must send you my gouty crutches.' My husband demurred at this and begged Mr. Smith not to give himself that trouble. He insisted, however, and the crutches were sent. Dr. Howe had really no need of them, and I laughed with him at their disproportion to his height, which would in any case have made it impossible for him to use them. The loan was presently returned with thanks, but scarcely soon enough; for Sydney Smith, who had lost heavily by American investments, published in one of the London papers a letter reflecting severely upon the failure of some of the Western States to pay their debts. The letter concluded with these words: 'And now an American, present at this time in London, has deprived me of my last means of support.' We questioned a little whether the loan had been made for the sake of the pleasantry."—*From Mrs. Howe's "Reminiscences."*

OUR NEW IMMIGRANTS.

Let no one believe that landing on the shores of "The land of the free, and the home of the brave," is a pleasant experience; it is a hard, harsh fact, surrounded by the grinding machinery of the law, which sifts, picks, and chooses; admitting the fit and excluding the weak and helpless.

Much ignorance needs to be dispelled regarding these immigrants. Not long ago, I heard one of the secretaries of a certain home missionary society say, with much unction as he pleaded for money for his work, "We land annually on these shores, a million paupers and criminals." Unfortunately, much of such impression prevails. It was my privilege recently, as a member of the National Conference on Immigration, to be among the guests of the commissioner of the port of New York, and one of the spectacles which we witnessed was the landing of a shipload of immigrants. We stood in the visitors' gallery and looked down upon a hall divided and subdivided by the cold iron railings. Many of the visitors were beginning to hold their noses in anticipation of the stenches which would come with these foreigners, and were ready to be shocked by the horrors of the steerage.

Slowly the bewildered mass came into view; but strange to relate, those who led the mass appeared like ladies and gentlemen.

The women wore modern, half acre hats a little the worse for wear, but bought in the city of Prague a few months before; and they were more becoming to these young Bohemian women than to the majority of their American sisters.

The men carried band boxes, silk umbrellas and walking canes, the remnants of past glories. They were permitted to come in first because they wore good clothing and passed out quickly into their freedom, the members of our Congress welcoming them heartily by the clapping of hands.

After them came the Slavic women with no finery except their homespun, rough, tough, and clean; carrying upon their backs piles of feather beds and household utensils. Strong limbed men followed them in the picturesque garb of their native villages; Slovaks, Poles, Roumanians, Ruthenians, Italians, and finally, Russian Jews; and lo and behold no smells ascended to our nostrils, and no horrors were disclosed.

Taking a group of delegates down among them, we found that they were wholesome looking people, not devoid of intelligence, and when the barrier between us was broken down by the sound of their native speech, they were communicative, at ease, and very human. The first time I entered New York was at Castle Garden, from the steamer *Fulda*, twenty years ago; and having watched the tide of immigration ever since, I can say that I have never seen, at any time, a shipload of better human beings disembark than those which came from the steamer *Wilhelm II*, on December 7, 1905, and of the many who came on this ship, it is just possible that those who wore neither fashionable hats nor trailing skirts and who were not politely treated,—it is just possible that they may after all, make the best members of this democratic society.

A gentleman from Ohio, a member of the Conference on Immigration, said on the floor, in open debate, and he said it with menacing gesture: "We don't want you to send none of them yellow worms from Southern Europe to our state; we got too many of them now." No doubt the gentleman from Ohio and the delegate from Rhode Island who said: "We don't want no more of thim dirty furriners in this grand and glorious country of ourn" voiced the common prejudice which rests itself entirely upon its ignorance.

It is true that many criminals come, especially from Italy. Many weak, impoverished and poorly developed creatures come from among Polish and Russian Jews, but they are only the tares in the wheat. The stock as a whole is physically sound; it is crude, common peasant stock, not the dregs of society, but its basis. Its blood is not blue but it is red, welcomely red, which is more to the purpose. Blue blood we also receive—thin, worn out blood, bought at a high price for the daughters of some of our multimillionaires; but no one can claim that either they or we have been specially blessed by it.—*From "On the Trail of the Immigrant," by Edward A. Steiner.*

A Century of Foreign Criticism On The United States---A Study of Progress.*

XIV. A Philosopher As Mediator

By John Graham Brooks

TO Professor Hugo Münsterberg we are indebted for two books, one written for our instruction, one for the instruction of Germany. Each country is overburdened with prejudices against the other. To clear the common air of these absurdities; to help each to understand the other; to encourage and enlighten friendly relations between Germany and the United States, is the generous purpose of these complementary studies.

This scholar has been so many years in our country; he has traveled so widely; his activities are so variously related as to give him skill as mediator and interpreter.

After seven years' teaching in Harvard University, he published "American Traits," in which the direct appeal is to us. Hundreds of students returning year by year from German universities learn something of the deeper life of

*Mr. Brooks' series of articles will appear monthly from September to May. The September articles were: I. "The Problem Opened;" II. "Concerning Our Critics." October: III. "Who is the American?" IV. "Our Talent for Bragging." November: V. "Some Other Peculiarities;" VI. "American Sensitiveness." December: VII. "The Mother Country as a Critic;" VIII. "Change in the Tone of Foreign Criticism." January: IX. "Higher Criticism; X. "Other French Visitors;" XI. "Democracy and Manners." February: XII. "Our Monopoly of Wit;" XIII. "Our Greatest Critic."

that country, but the "average American ignorance" is not only dense but often increased by hurried trips through German territory. That they are frowsy, unpractical, and given to cloudy philosophies; that their food swims in grease; that their pompous officials are perpetually interfering in your private affairs, is a mental picture very common in this country. The Americans' complaint of this petty interference, I have heard oftener than any other criticism. We turn to Professor Münsterberg to find him critical of this same evil in the United States. He complains of our "restrictions and prohibitions and a continuous meddling with private affairs." Our policemen do not come in to insist that the heating arrangements should be thus or so; they do not get serious and bureaucratic over the baby carriage, or over the way you carry a cane in the street; but we have our petty legal interferences quite as intolerable to Germans. We are used to these and do not notice them.

To illustrate these international densities, the author writes:

"An American who has never been abroad invited me, the other day, to a German luncheon. I had to work my way through a series of so-called German dishes, which I had never tasted or smelled before; and when finally imported sauerkraut appeared, and I had to confess that I had never tried it in my life and had never seen anyone else eating it, my host assured me that I did not know anything about Germany: it was the favorite dish of every Prussian. The habits of the Prussian sauerkraut eater are well known. He goes shabbily dressed, never takes a bath, drinks beer at his breakfast, plays skat, smokes a long pipe, wears spectacles, reads books from dirty loan libraries, is rude to the lower classes and slavishly servile to the higher, is innocent of the slightest attempt at good form in society, considering it as his object in life to obey the policeman, to fill blanks with bureaucratic red tape, and to get a title in front of his name."

"How does the Yankee look in the imagination of my countrymen? In the German language the adjective 'American' is usually connected with but three things. The Germans speak of American stoves and mean a kind of stove which I have never seen in this country; they speak of American duels, and mean an absurd sort

of duel which was certainly never fought on this continent; and finally, they speak of American humbug, and mean by it that kind of humbug which flourishes in Berlin just as in Chicago. But the American man is of course very well known. He is a haggard creature, with vulgar tastes and brutal manners, who drinks whiskey and chews tobacco, spits, fights, puts his feet on the table, and habitually rushes along in wild haste, absorbed by a greedy desire for the dollars of his neighbors. He does not care for education or art, for the public welfare or for justice, except so far as they mean money to him."*

The American thinks the German "servile, reactionary, narrow minded," while the German believes the American to be "greedy, vulgar, brutal and corrupt." The high task of the author is to make both peoples ashamed of this petty and philistine judgment. By patient instruction he tries to scatter these devils of misunderstanding by turning on the light.

His appreciation and praise of all that is best in our life and institutions is found in "The Americans."† As it is addressed wholly to Germany, it lies largely outside the present purpose. There are, however, few Americans who cannot find instruction in every chapter. These contain some startling statements, the accuracy of which are very wide open to criticism. They are often statements, however, flatteringly in our favor. They are doubtless meant to be strong in order to reach the thick-skinned prepossessions against us in the Fatherland. The author, moreover, frankly defends himself for touching lightly upon our faults and idealizing many of our virtues, because he addresses his message to Germany. He admits that the larger book is a "study of the Americans *as the best of them are and as the others should wish to be.*" This is, of course, only part of the picture, but it is for the author's purpose the truer and more essential part. The man who uniformly takes his fellows at their best rather than at their worst is not only a wiser but a far more useful citizen. The really great names on our

*"American Traits," pp. 7, 8, and 9.
†Published by McClure-Phillips, New York.

roll of honor from Washington to Lincoln, with a kind of divine obstinacy, took their fellow countrymen at their best. The scamps and the half-scamps, who have lowered life among us, as uniformly took men at their worst. To lift the discussion and the estimate of foreign peoples so that they can be taken at their best would revolutionize for good every international relationship. Nothing less than this is the spirit of this author's bulky volume.

In the briefer study addressed to us, the working of our educational and democratic ideals is kept chiefly in mind. We have the educator in the critic's role. Before dwelling on strictures and warnings, let us note the full heartiness of his appreciation.

There is first the caution of the real critic in discrimination and avoiding that commonest pitfall—loose analogy, as when he deals with the press in both countries:

"It is, for instance, not at all fair to compare the political German newspapers with those of America, and to consider them as mirrors of the nation. In Germany all the newspapers which have a political value are exclusively for the educated classes, while in America every paper, and especially those which are seen most, is written for the masses. Social economic conditions make that necessary; and it is, therefore, natural that the American paper makes concessions to vulgarity which would be impossible on the other side."*

Even our hateful gum-chewing is "mere imperfection of the coördinating centers." Most foreigners have so misunderstood this domestic delight that they have invariably mocked at it and reviled it, but now our "motor restlessness" gets relief, as it does in the use of rocking-chairs, so that this traduced munching which an unscientific Englishman says "straightway transforms a pretty girl into a cow with her cud," becomes dignified as the proper care of one's health.

There is quite incandescent eulogy of the American girl which the most ardent of our early French admirers did not surpass:

*"American Traits," p. 27.

"He [the foreigner] wanders in vain through the colleges to find the repulsive creature he expected, and the funny picture of the German comic papers changes slowly into an enchanting type by Gibson. And when he has made good use of his letters of introduction, and has met these new creatures at closer range, has chatted with them before cosy open fires, has danced and bicycled and golfed with them, has seen their clubs and meetings and charities,—he finds himself discouragingly word-poor when he endeavors to describe, with his imperfect English, the impression that has been made upon him; he feels that his vocabulary is not sufficiently provided with complimentary epithets. The American woman is clever and ingenious and witty; she is brilliant and lively and strong; she is charming and beautiful and noble; she is generous and amiable and resolute; she is energetic and practical, and yet idealistic and enthusiastic—indeed, what is she not?"*

Of things more serious than gum and gallantries, we have an honest attempt so to state the national traits which have excited most criticism, that they can be seen in their relations and with some qualification. Even of our begrimed politics he says:

"The same complex historical reasons which have made the party spoils system and the boss system practically necessary forms of government have often brought representatives of very vulgar instincts into conspicuous political places; but that does not mean that the higher instincts are absent, still less that the alarming accusations which fill the press have more than a grain of truth in a bushel of denunciation."†

He then makes adroit distinction between policies that

*"American Traits," p. 130.

The fine glow of this tribute has scientific confirmation from a source that ought to give Mr. Münsterberg a higher opinion of Froebel. A child, still in the kindergarten age, wrote her first essay on woman. Her father, a professor of natural science in an Eastern university, had furnished the Darwinian atmosphere in which the little girl grew up. She wrote, "Men and women spring from monkeys. My father says so; but *I* says, women sprung further *away* from monkies than men did."

To be impartial one should also quote another qualifying opinion about a great multitude of American women whom the author thinks given to fads and intellectual hysterias. She "cannot discriminate between the superficial and the profound, and without the slightest hesitation she effuses, like a bit of gossip, her views on Greek art or on Darwinism between two spoonsful of ice cream."

†"American Traits," p. 28.

are directly under the heavy pressure of self interest (tariffs, trusts, free silver, etc.,) and those that represent the general political feeling and responsibility. It is in this more general sphere that

". . . the American in politics proves himself the purest idealist, the best men come to the front, the most sentimental motives dominate, and almost no one dares to damage his cause by appealing to selfish instincts. Recent events have once more proved that beyond question. Whatever the senators and sugar men may have thought of it, the people wanted the Cuban war for sentimental reasons; and if the uninformed Continental papers maintain that the desire for war had merely selfish reasons, they falsify history."*

One other passage must be given:

"The high spirit of the individual in politics repeats itself much more plainly in private life, where helpfulness and honesty seem to me the most essential characteristics of the American. Helpfulness shows itself in charity, in hospitality, in projects for education or for public improvements, or in the most trivial services of daily life; while silent confidence in the honesty of one's fellow men controls practical relations here in a way which is not known in cautious Europe, and could not have been developed if that confidence were not justified. Add to it the American's gracefulness and generosity, his elasticity and his frankness, his cleanliness and his chastity, his humor and his fairness; consider the vividness of his religious emotion, his interest in religious and metaphysical science,—in short, look around everywhere without prejudice, and you cannot doubt that behind the terrifying mask of the selfish realist breathes the idealist, who is controlled by a belief in ethical values."†

After appreciation like this, it would be a poor return of courtesies not to heed the admonitions. They are not wanting either in number or in pungency. Even while he warns Europeans not to do us injustice or exaggerate our faults, he admits that we have still a good stock of the "more civilized forms of vulgarity."

"The result is not necessarily, as Europeans often wrongly imagine, a general mob-like vulgarity: but a bumptious oratory, a flippant superficiality of style, a lack of esthetic refinement, an

*"American Traits," p. 28.

†"American Traits," p. 29.

underestimation of the serious specialist and an overestimation of the unproductive popularizer, a constant exploitation of immature young men with loud newspaper voices and complete inability to appreciate the services of older men, a triumph of gossip, and a crushing defeat of all aims that work against the lazy liking for money-making and comfort."* •

Again, what is becoming of our fine hypocrisies about social equality? There is no need to refer to our behavior to the Chinese since the sand-lot orator, Denis Kearney, roused California masses against them, or the Indians, or the prevention of the negro vote. No reference is necessary to the open chase for foreign titles. The practical ignoring and even hatred of the equalities to which lip-service has been given, may be seen spreading like a contagion through our entire system. Quiet and ordinary Americans, whose means permit them to build a better house, as far as possible from the poorer neighbors, are quick to discover that they "really can't any longer send their darlings to the public school." The company is too common. · Schools now numbering thousands, supported by millions of money, have sprung into existence and are fast increasing. These are frankly based on a principle of social selection that is the very breath of an imitated aristocracy. The public schools in which such brave hopes were placed as the bulwarks of democracy are now in a sinister sense *not good enough* for the well-to-do. Though the education and, above all, the most needed element of discipline may be better in the public school, it is not good enough *socially* for growing multitudes of Americans. We are very ingenious in the use of pretty sophistries to explain the reasons why children must go to "select" schools, but no one need be deceived. Dr. Münsterberg says:

"Where is the equality in the inner life of America? Of course it is true that we have public schools where all are equal; the only difficulty is that they are not in use. Yes, there is no doubt that we are fast approaching a state where nobody in a

*"American Traits," p. 196.

city sends his children to the public schools when his means allow him to pay for the instruction of a private school."*

Or it is what the author calls "the pedigree spleen" which has now caught "the best material of the nation."

"If a single family of Connecticut needs three volumes of 2,740 quarto pages to print its own history; if the Daughters of the Revolution have 27,000 members; if the genealogical societies like the Colonial Dames, the Daughters of the Holland Dames, the Mayflower Descendants, and so on, multiply with every year,—the aristocratic undercurrent cannot be doubted."†

The organized pilgrimages in search of proof that our family origins are in touch with the proud and the mighty now fill the land. A learned gentleman in charge of one of our genealogical societies tells me, that to watch the good people who crowd his rooms seeking for aristocratic connections about which they can brag the rest of their lives, is to learn that human nature in this country is as full of toadyism as that of any people who ever lived. One industrious lady, after much expense and years of trouble, discovered a thread which connects her with an English yeoman. She hurried in agitation to the librarian to find out what a "yeoman" might be. The answer was a little disappointing. She said, "I suppose I've got to put up with him, but I did hope after all I paid out, I'd find an ancestor that wore armor and a helmet."

Another librarian tells me that it is one of his experiences to have these unsatisfied souls, after much seeking, come to him with the finger on some heraldic device that specially pleases them—they like its shape or colors—and say bluntly, "I've concluded to take that. How much is it?" When it is explained that coats of arms are not sold in that society, "I sometimes tell them there are plenty of places where they can buy them, and I have never known anyone to fail to make the aristocratic connection if they kept at it." To furnish very humble Americans with dis-

*"American Traits," p. 227.
†"American Traits," p. 228.

tinguished ancestry is an enormous business now in this country.

The Boston *Transcript* began some years ago very modestly; but now with rythmic devotion several columns of fine print are given twice a week to this cult. The urgency is such that the editor now appeals to contributors to have mercy. He has to print regularly this warning:

"The pressure upon the genealogical department has become so great and matter has accumulated to such an extent that it is impossible to insert queries as soon as they are received."

Thus the "pedigree spleen" grows apace in the land where "all men are created equal."

Another graver fault in this author's eyes is the American superstition that "almost anybody can do almost anything." Any young girl is competent to teach a Sunday school class or a country school. Anyone who does service for the party in caucus or on the stump is fit to be consul, though totally ignorant of the language, customs, and commerce of the people to whom he is accredited. Everybody is fit to be a representative, on the school committee, or any kind of inspector. In discussing Winston Churchill's "Coniston" a politician of large experience in New Hampshire says, "The railroads have done much to corrupt the people, but here is a deeper evil. The common idea that everybody ought to go to the legislature and is fitted to go there, is what blocks the first necessary steps toward reform." According to Dr. Münsterberg, the greatness of Germany has been won by faith in the man of special training. We have practised this in all our most successful businesses, but it has been the bane of our political life to test fitness by a mere party fealty that bears no relation to the duties of the office sought. That we are now (as in the question of consuls) aroused to some sense of our long blundering, is to this critic bright with promise.

The name he gives to this superstition is "democratic dilettantism," which has smitten us with "an ineffective triviality which repels the best men and opens wide the doors

of dishonesty." It is thought to be the crudest absurdity to ask any man to be the mayor of a German city, unless he has thorough administrative training in city business. To make this office, as it is made in this country, the helter-skelter prize of factional policies is properly described by a former German Minister, Schleiden, who wrote, "American municipal politics will remain corrupt and wasteful until the people learn that educated ability is the sole qualification for city offices." Professor Münsterberg attributes many phases of our weakness and troubles to this "chronic dilettantism." It works like a poison at the root of large parts of our educational system:

"We have instead a misery which can be characterized by one statistical fact: only two per cent. of the school teachers possess any degree whatever. If the majority of college teachers are hardly prepared to teach in a secondary school, if the majority of high-school teachers are hardly fit to teach in a primary school, and if the majority of primary school teachers are just enough educated to fill a salesgirl's place in a millinery store, then every other reform is self-deceit."*

This writer is saying only what other friendly and competent men have said of all but our exceptional education.

In a report of the Royal German Commission in 1904, Dr. Dunker writes of the average American school:

"The difficulties are avoided, mistakes passed by: frequently the pupils are given great tasks whose performances would exceed their power, and the school is satisfied with a childish treatment of the subject and makes the impression upon the children that the problem has been fully solved. This results in quickness of judgment, self-confidence, superficiality, and dilettantism."

"Everywhere there is credulous optimism coupled with harmless dilettantism; everywhere high aim, liberal execution; but lack of solidity in matters of detail."

These observations are of course made daily by our own abler educators, often in more uncompromising terms. But the business now is not with our own fault finding. The essence of the criticism is that we suffer grievously from lack of thoroughness as compared to the German standard

*"American Traits," p. 76.

and that, above all, our general education fails in sustained *disciplinary* power. This lack of thoroughness and of discipline leaves us with a thousand coddling private schools with no severity of standard whatsoever. It gives the pretentious list of studies and the display of pupils on show days when the public is admitted. It tests education by its promise of immediate cash returns. Thus the nobler and more disinterested ideals of education lose honor.

That it is greater to obey than to command is nobly true, and it has to be admitted that the ideals of obedience are less popular among our boys and girls than dreams of domination over others. Neither is it quite a fad among our youth to give their signatures to "the declaration of dependence." One of our teachers, into whose school came a small group of pupils from south Germany, said, "They seemed for one term to be a different species. They had not been cowed, but there was a charm of deference, a delicacy of consideration and a capacity to blush which stood out in strange contrast to the mass of our pupils. Within a few months, I could see that these pretty ways could not be retained in the new atmosphere." For this loss, do we get some compensation in greater "self-determination" which this critic notes as one of our traits?

The spirit of reverence as expressed in the docility of the German child we cannot have, any more than we can have the ruthless discipline of the German army. Since it is so hopelessly beyond our reach, let us believe that there are some compensations for its loss.

The final reproof of this author is graver still. If the American is sure of anything, it is that he enjoys an amount of freedom of which Old World societies know little. The possession of liberty is our strong point. But what does it signify to have liberty; really to be free in the large sense of that word? Is the South free to discuss the race problem strictly and fearlessly upon its merits? Hundreds of the best Southerners will tell you that the political and social spectre

raised by that issue silences freedom of speech. Can their theological professors deal boldly with the accepted results of scientific and critical investigation? Can the Bible on one side and Darwin on the other have open and bold discussion? There are no better men in the South than those who say that this is impossible and that many years must pass before anything like the German academic freedom will be attained. In scores of Northern colleges of sectarian tradition this is also true. This is what Professor Münsterberg has in mind when he points to the higher freedom in that country. In this respect the Germans are our superiors. It is one of our humiliations that we still carry on the heresy hunt against men who merely try to interpret the elementary results of a scientific world-scholarship.

The other sphere in which our moral liberty suffers is even more important. Intellectual slavery is nowhere so dangerous socially as in our politics. "To the independence of public men," he says, "and to their loyalty to the commonwealth, party bondage is fatal." Of certain legislative bills he is told in private, how bad and mischievous they are; but when they come up, no one "dares to say a word." The heresy for which men widely care is no longer theological, but economic, and even this word but half expresses the truth. The heresy for which blood money is now demanded is upon the surface political, but the unseen heart of it is business and property interests over which men are in conflict. It may be sugar on one side and Philippine tariff on the other, but the ordinary political contest is only an outer aspect of competitive struggle for desired properties. If people really value these more than they value other things, they will barter the spirit and the letter of the Great Declaration—all the stately syntax about equalities and rights—for the economic ends they have in sight. When that great dreamer and doer, Cecil Rhodes, said the English flag was a good business asset, he was putting in words, even if mockingly, what our most masterful business men systematically *act*

upon. Politics is a pawn in the game of strategic business control. It is this, and this alone, which explains most of the lawlessness of "the great interests;" but also the other most serious criticism of four other of our fairest and ablest critics, namely, the "abdication of intellectual freedom" under the dictates of party politics—de Tocqueville, Chevalier, Bryce, and Ostrogorski.

They are also as a unit upon this other accusation: "The party ruler in America with his methods of nomination deprives the individual of his political powers more completely than any aristocratic system and the despotism of the boss easily turns into the tyranny of a group of capitalists." The paragraph modernizes de Tocqueville's chief misgiving about us. We have seen the same grave charges in Mr. Bryce, Ostrogorski,* who studied this feature of our life with a fearless impartially that won from Mr. Bryce the highest praise has drawn conclusions that we have to face or become convicted of inexcusable timidities. When he finds that the greater private interests act so promptly upon Congress that the freedom of individual members seems to be lost, we think of a commanding state, the pivotal state—New York—and her two present senators. Can anyone point to a solitary hint of constructive policy that is traceable either to Mr. Platt or to Mr. Depew? Are they free to act even for the *people* of their own state? They are thought of as serving henchmen—the one for a great railroad, the other for an express company. What two men have had such chances to know of the inner corruption of New York politics? With all their knowledge of these things, has either of them lifted a hand to disclose or check these evils? One of our critics asks these perturbing questions, speaking of one of our most famous senators, in whose state party politics was managed by a boss of notorious venality, "How is it possible that this senator should not know the practices of that boss? If he knows them and willingly profits by them to keep his

*Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties. Macmillan. 1902.

place, in what is he better than the boss himself? If he knows them, why is he not the first to cry out and appeal to the people against such corruption?" "The hardest thing to understand in the United States is that these political leaders in Eastern states like Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Ohio, should consent to keep silent while a lot of journalists investigate and explain the evils to the public." Yes, this is hard to understand, and few of us ever heard the explanation. Our critics tell us that these men are in no sense free; that they are bound hand and foot so far as freedom to act and speak in the large public interest is concerned. Senator Quay could plead with a pathos of disinterestedness, for what? for the reforming at home of a systematized party corruption that has long been a by-word in the land? No, not for this, but for the Indians, in whom he had, I believe, a humane interest. But how safe and far away from home diseases these wards of the nation are!

The final Summary and Conclusion in the closing volume of Ostrogorski* should have a separate printing and be read by every American who knows the language. It is used here for its sturdy reinforcement of Münsterberg's gravest indictment.

We are familiar with *habeas corpus* and reckon it among the most precious of our political possessions. But this author asks us about *habeas animum*. We still deliver the body, but how next are we to deliver a *free mind*—how free the spirit from the dead body of party tyranny? This is the summons. He says wisely that it is folly to throw the blame solely upon the party leaders. It is the whole mental attitude of the voters that needs to be unbound. It is this public, he says, that is now made to believe "that the citizen who follows his party blindly is a 'patriot' and that the prostitution of power to a party is a pious action. These idols, as Bacon would say, must be destroyed. Men

*Vol. II, pp. 336 to 741.

must be taught to use their judgment and to act independently. It is on the accomplishment of this work of liberation that the whole future of democracy depends."*

"In the absence of this independence and this vigilance, demagogism and corruption have entered the house in broad day, as a thief enters in the night. Democracy thenceforth received a check and not through an excess of liberty, as so many of its critics imagine, *but from a deficiency of it*, from a want of moral liberty in this government of free reason."

Again and again we have passages like this:

"And these men enter Congress as slaves of the Machine and the Boss, of sordid parochial considerations, or of powerful private interests, industrial or financial, which are so often in league with the machine. One or other of these servitudes of mind and conscience, or even of all combined, is what they have to pay for their seat. The House, therefore, is simply a diet of representatives of private or local interests, and it has been aptly remarked that every interest is represented in it except the public interest."†

We are not dealing here with irresponsible cranks or muck-rake journalists, but with friendly, impartial and equipped scholars. Of the one now quoted Mr. Bryce could say that few men ever brought a more scientific spirit to his task.

Habeas animum, to get the really free mind in the realm of politics; to enlarge every fearless activity of political independence, is our supreme need. This warning is as if de Tocqueville spoke from the dead to say again what he wrote long since. Though in unsoftened phrases, it is the soul of Mr. Bryce's appeal for a manlier independence of party whips. Firm in his purpose to defend and to take us at our best, Dr. Münsterberg puts his finger on the same cancerous spot.

It is as if these well wishers spoke with a single voice, "There is just as much safety for your Democracy as there is moral and mental independence of party tyranny in your citizens."

*"Democracy," Vol. II, pp. 728, 729.
†Vol. II, p. 544.

"There aint going to be no revolution, H. G. Wells." So different in its effects is the great touchstone, America!

I once heard a bumptious person criticizing a portrait by a clever artist in his studio. When the critic had gone, the artist made an unflattering speech, which ended with these words, "What that booby thinks of the portrait isn't interesting, but I should pay well to know what the portrait thinks of him." If it were articulate, what would the touchstone America say of many of its critics?

I have sought diligently for American views of Mr. Wells' book. That so many cordial opinions are expressed by those who have experienced enough to judge it largely, is full of good omen. Very little criticism that cuts deeper has been written about us. There are pages (like some of those in the chapter on "State Blindness") which most Americans would do well to ponder long; passages, too, like this after discovering the hideous fact that child labor is actually upon the increase in the United States:

"This is the bottomest end of the scale that at the top has all the lavish spending of Fifth Avenue, the joyous wanton giving of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. Equally with these things it is an unpremeditated consequence of an inadequate theory of freedom. The foolish extravagance of the rich, the architectural pathos of Newport, the dingy, noisy, economic jumble of central and South Chicago, the Standard Oil offices in Broadway, the darkened streets beneath the New York elevated railroad, the littered ugliness of Niagara's banks, and the lowermost hell of child suffering, are all so many accordant aspects and inexorable consequences of the same undisciplined way of living."

It is a book that many a reader will merrily skip through, thinking its claims to serious attention are very slight. This is an almost pitiful error. For a century, perhaps several books a year have been written about us, but not a baker's dozen of them deserve more assiduous attention than this small volume. It is the charm of "The Future in America" that the author is just enough haunted by the magnitude of his task to be a little afraid of it. He does not take himself too seriously or fall into pedantries. He

is very graceful in avoiding the hard realities that ask for too definite and cocksure opinions. His polished gaieties serve him well in many a tight place, where a prosy literalism would leave him knee-deep in difficulties. It is a book full of imaginative insight, full of swift glimpses, as if the eye were aided by a powerful glass. Even when he looks upon a great question, like that of immigration or the negro, he throws more light into it and about it than many who lived long in its presence. Let us first see his attitude toward these two issues. They, too, are touchstones.

The author has a keen and instructed interest in race problems. His eye, so quick to detect the inner taint in what seems flushed with health, is at once fixed upon the momentous inpouring of our immigration. It fills him with foreboding. He sees that the more disciplined peoples of North Europe have become a tiny stream as compared with the broadening flood from South and Eastern Europe. That Constantinople should soon be the geographic center of these human tides opens a gloomy vista to his imagination, because we are so afraid of adequate state regulation. He sees us thrusting the vote upon these raw peasants, but "that does not free them, it only enslaves the country." He speaks as if he were watching a continent struggling with indigestion. ". . . the dark shadow of disastrous possibility remains. The immigrant comes in to weaken and confuse the counsels of labor, to serve the purpose of corruption, to complicate any economic and social development, above all to retard enormously the development of that national consciousness and will on which the hope of the future depends." Very deftly he touches the points at which immigration adds to the weight of our burden. It does make the labor problem harder and political trickeries easier. It does complicate social development and, most of all, it does retard the fusing of common social consciousness and will, that are indispensable to unified action in community life.

The deepest reason why employers and people of easy

incomes generally want the immigrant does not escape him. He states it thus: ". . . that America, in the urgent process of individualistic industrial development, in its feverish haste to get through with its material possibilities, is importing a large portion of the peasantry of central and eastern Europe, and converting it into a practically illiterate industrial proletariat."

Again, with the same firm stroke, he traces two of the heaviest shadows that fall on this race movement: first, the effect upon the child life born into the poorer and most cramped quarters of our cities. The parents come with the simple habits of country ways. They are diligent and of good behavior. In spite of some lying jugglery in statistical form, they are very free from criminal propensities. But their offspring, thrust into city streets for their first habit-making before the school begins!—here is an evil sinister enough. The second is the inevitable coarsening effect which the new liberties and freedom from traditional restraints are likely to bring upon hordes of the fresh comers to our shores. This is his estimate:

"It seems to me that the immigrant arrives an artless, rather uncivilized, pious, good-hearted peasant, with a disposition towards submissive industry and rude effectual moral habits. America, it is alleged, makes a man of him. It seems to me that all too often she makes an infuriated toiler of him, tempts him with dollars and speeds him up with competition, hardens him, coarsens his manners, and, worse crime of all, lures and forces him to sell his children into toil. The home of the immigrant in America looks to me worse than the home he came from in Italy. It is just as dirty, it is far less simple and beautiful, the food is no more wholesome, the moral atmosphere far less wholesome; and, as a consequence, the child of the immigrant is a worse man than his father."

A young woman from a New York settlement takes him to watch the patriotic exercises in the school close by. He listens, not without a thrill of sympathy, to the clamorous adoration that lights a hundred immigrant faces as the little flags go up. "Do you know," he says, "I too have

come near feeling that at times for America." Then he goes out from this glad consecration into the dirty street, where he stumbles upon "a heap of decaying filth that some hawker had dumped in the gutter," and the fine spell is gone. The barbaric disorders disenchant him and he sees in the murky perspective of some future near or far three words,

"LYNCHINGS! CHILD LABOR! GRAFT!"

Then comes the tragedy of another problem, that of color. He looks into the Southland at the negro and his destiny, close coupled with that of his white neighbors. Here there is even less hope. As for immigration, he admits that America may suddenly rouse herself to heroic educational enterprises that may lift the peasant armies into disciplined efficiencies, that will make the vast invasion safe, but this riddle of the African so socially separated from the whites, with the coarse prejudices waxing rather than waning, what gleam of light is discernible here? From all sorts of Americans he seeks information, only to be staggered by utter failure. He cannot get even "the beginnings of an answer." He declares that "hardly any Americans at all seem to be in possession of the elementary facts in relation to this question."

In the mournful undertone of his speculation only one thing is clear to Mr. Wells, which is, that the chief obstacle is not in the black man but in the white. How shall this same proud white man educate himself to live in honor with the weaker people? These weaker ones did not ask to come. Their fathers and mothers were stolen on the African coast and forced in terror and with immense atrocities to come to this country. Their descendants are now here with the blood of their masters flowing in their veins. Only a freak here and there will talk of deporting them. They are to remain in our midst. How can we whites educate ourselves into that larger tolerance that may make a common civilization possible? How can we use our superiorities so

that wisdom and statesmanship shall more and more take the place of inherited bias and passion?

To Mr. Wells there is one unslain dragon. It is the dragon of a Christless and religionless race prejudice. He finds it as bullying and insolent in the North as in the South. How are we whites to rid ourselves of this great uncleanness? Nothing less than this is the challenge.

Mr. Wells is not deluded about the black. He does not see him as a white man who happens to have a darkened skin. The indolence, thriftlessness, and gay unconcern of the negro are familiar to him, and it is because he is aware of these that we read with more interest the following tribute to the best of the oncoming negroes.

"Whatever America has to show in heroic living today, I doubt if she can show anything finer than the quality of the resolve, the steadfast effort hundreds of black and colored men are making today to live blamelessly, honorably, and patiently, getting for themselves what scraps of refinement, learning, and beauty they may, keeping their hold on a civilization they are grudged and denied."

In this spirit he philosophizes, but always with the thought of how things are coming out. How do the negro and the immigrant bear upon the tasks of the next generation? He finds us woefully lacking in action that bears widely upon that future. We can dig ores and coal, fell trees, exhaust soils at a terrific rate that we identify with "progress." But how is all this frenzy related to the life ahead? Not one of his graceful pages will have its proper reading unless this future society is held in mind.

Mr. Wells is the man of letters and of science with a yearning for Utopias. He has a fine disdain for the thing that is. What may *become* of the fact; what may be made out of it; that alone entrances him.* He is not to be per-

*Says Mr. Bryce in similar vein, of the House of Representatives: "Here, as so often in America, one thinks rather of the future than of the present. Of what tremendous struggles may not this Hall become the theater in ages yet far distant, when the Parliaments of Europe have shrunk to insignificance?"—"American Commonwealth," Vol. I, p. 149.

suaded to give an hour to the home of Emerson or the resting place of George Washington. Niagara bores him as much as the swift turbines enchant him. He is the first competent and unashamed Socialist to write a book about us. I say unashamed because he does not flinch from or shuffle with the logic of his faith. The whole conclave of our conventional idols: "business enterprise," "private initiative," "property," "trade," "freedom," "patriotism," bourgeois family and state are to him half amusing and half mischievous superstitions. He is always the socialist with ample and generous tolerance for our illusions. There is no hysteria, no fuming, no frenzied invective after the manner of your ordinary Socialist, against the predatory culprits called Captains of Industry. If these masters of our commercial fate step with seven league boots, if they move and act like a Colossus dividing the spoils after their own heart, Mr. Wells falls into line with the common army of admirers. He finds them diverting and full of instruction. How else can a people be taught the baleful logic of a consecrated capitalism? If huckstering and market-dicing with high finance are to be glorified until they absorb the best talent of the nation, how are the multitudinous victims to be disillusioned except they see stalking among them the embodied results of their system? These giant overlords, staggering under their incomes, are the best possible object lesson to an envious populace that meanly admires them. Let the comedy play itself out before all eyes.

He sees every one of our ills through the medium which the massed energies of the nation have created. This is business, everywhere business. Our ambitions and our achievements are scaled to this standpoint. We organize our dollar-getting so that the general estimate of success is in terms of large ownership. This creates the atmosphere in which the very rich, simply *because* of riches, feel a prescriptive right, let us say, to a seat in the Senate. One of the most recent to enter this body is from a great state in

the West, one of whose citizens says frankly, "Well, ——— is our richest man; why shouldn't he go to the Senate?" It should be the one political body beyond taint of suspicion, yet some of its high places are bought as if it were a stock exchange. Business masteries have so subdued our politics and our politicians, that they are but the echo of what the stronger business men want.

What chance has socialism in such a community? Mr. Wells grows timid. Like a good *bourgeois* he warns us against our own Socialistic preachers. It is his private faith that we are without hope until the world's chief business is taken from private hands and private profit makers. The community (town, city, government) must manage this wealth-making directly for the good of the people and for all the people. Yet when Mr. Wells looks into this same business in the United States; when he examines our politics and the specter of corruption that is business on one side and politics on the other, he shrinks. Pearls must not be cast before swine. Socialism is far too good for America. So busy have we been in gathering dollars that "nobody is left over to watch the politician." The boss, with his slavish army of heelers, has waxed great amidst the general laxity. We have allowed him to become the "professional," whose exclusive aim is personal profit. The pearl of socialism, says Mr. Wells, is not to be trusted to such as he. "Under socialism all business comes straight into politics and has to be managed by selected officials. Think of giving Standard Oil or railroad interests to politicians as they now are in the United States!" It strikes him as grotesque.

And here, to this author, is the essential tragedy, that we are so overpoweringly a trading people; that our distinctions, ambitions, energies, and education are so universally dedicated to the profit-making ends of trade. These habits are so nationalized, so all-pervasive that *they cannot be kept out of any other part of our life.* It would still be well

with us if we could keep the trader's instinct confined to its own field, but it is our tragedy that the trading ardor with its sister propensity, gambling, invades all other fields. Gambling is the sport instinct exercising itself in rivalry against another, to get something for nothing. It is trade stripped of its decencies and restraints. Trade *plus* the license of the gamester thus takes possession of us. It first encroaches upon politics, filling the convention, caucus, and lobby with deals and bargainings. To counter and dicker with blocks of votes becomes identical with the chaffering of the market place. The spoils system is merely systematized trading.

The Church no more escapes than politics. It has to be commercially organized with clerical salaries, pew rents, and selected congregations that reflect to a letter the social standards which rest on a scaled material prosperity. The poor are no more wanted there than they are at a fashionable dinner. From the petty gambling at the church fair to the social consecration of bridge whist, the stamp of this prosperity is deep upon us. It materializes education, the theater, and athletics.

Yet Mr. Wells feels no astonishment. We are cankered with "graft," but that is inevitable because we are a nation of traders, and trade is in essence overreaching. If you wish to see it as it is, watch the game of poker,—"a sort of expressionless lying called 'bluffing.'" In its essential quality, trading does not differ from cheating. ". . . the commercial ideal is to buy from the needy, sell to the urgent need, and get all that can possibly be got out of every transaction. To do anything else isn't business—it's some other sort of game. Let us look squarely into the pretences of trading. The plain fact of the case is that in trading for profit there is no natural line at which legitimate bargaining ends and cheating begins. The seller wants to get above the value and the buyer below it. The seller seeks to appreciate, the buyer to depreciate; and where is there room for truth in that contest?"*

*"The Future in America," p. 123.

"A very scrupulous man stops at one point, a less scrupulous man at another, an eager, ambitious man may find himself carried by his own impetus very far. Too often the least scrupulous wins. In all ages, among all races, this taint in trade has been felt. Modern western Europe, led by England and America, has denied it stoutly, has glorified the trader, called him a 'merchant prince,' wrapped him in the purple of the word, 'financier,' bowed down before him. The trader remains a trader, a hand that clutches, an uncreative brain that lays snares."*

We have been sufficiently taught that the sharp higglings of the market, the calculating strife between buyer and seller, were attended by incidental evils that take on here and there vicious proportions. To Mr. Wells these distinctions are the pious hypocrisies by which sharpers cloak their thieving. His joyous tilting is not against the flagrance and abuses of trade, but against all trade, and the very nature of trade. It has been much and long believed that the exchange function in trade—in spite of excesses—carried with it immense common advantages. Mr. Wells strives to free us from this illusion. The trader, even the most enterprising and honest one, has only "an uncreative brain." He merely "clutches" and sucks like a parasite.

All these judgments Mr. Wells, of course, brought with him. They are a part of his equipment as Socialist critic and their value is very great for him and for us. They furnish him with a standard which he is continually applying to our country. He is not criticizing us alone. To the Socialist, England is as sick with graft as America. To him graft is an evil name for about all that England is, commercially. All her stately manors, all her parks and palaces, all her rent bearing forms of property on which her great families fattened like parasites, are the quintessence of sponging and graft. The only difference to Mr. Wells, as he says plainly, is that Americans talk about their sins more openly and more vociferously. That we cry aloud, is our hope. If England should cry out about her own embedded graft, there would be more hope for her.

*"The Future in America," p. 125.

It is our peculiarity that we are so all-in-all given over to profit-mongering. We are accurately the counterpart of the great middle class trading and huckstering England. We differ only in this, that we can out-hustle England. We are friskier and the dead hand of custom lies more lightly upon us. But we are the hammering, shopkeeping middle class of his own countrymen set in freer and happier conditions for our work. Voltaire summarized England in these words, "The bottom dregs; the top, the froth; and the middle, excellent." Wells agrees about the dregs and the froth, but the poor middle class has for him no excellences. Its shopkeeping prosperities are but organized vulgarity and overreaching of your neighbor. As for ourselves in America, we have the froth, but it is a putrid imitation and the lees are ever thicker at the bottom, while the saving middle already becomes stale. We have nothing in common with the elegances and responsibilities of upper class England, and so far, very little of the squalid deformity of her lowest classes.

"America is simply repeating the history of the Lancashire industrialism on a gigantic scale, and under an enormous variety of forms.

"But in England, as the modern Rich rise up, they come into a world of gentry with a tradition of public service and authority, they learn one by one and assimilate themselves to the legend of the governing class with a sense of proprietorship, which is also, in is humanly limited way, a sense of duty to the state.

"America, on the other hand, had no effectual 'governing class,' there has been no such modification, no clouding of the issue. Its rich, to one's superficial inspection, do seem to lop out, swell up into an immense consumption and power and inanity, develop no sense of public duties, remain winners of a strange game they do not criticise, concerned now only to hold and intensify their winnings.

"This is the fact to which America is slowly awaking at the present time. The American community is discovering a secular extinction of opportunity, and the appearance of powers against which individual enterprise and competition are hopeless. Enormous sections of the American public are losing their faith in any

personal chance of growing rich and truly free, and are developing the consciousness of an expropriated class."*

"A secular extinction of opportunity!"† This is one of his easy literary felicities to show us that the froth at the top and the dregs at the bottom are already becoming indistinguishable from the middle.

If we reply that very many of our ultra-rich do develop a sense of public duty, that they dower education, art museums, hospitals, institutions for scientific research, on a scale unknown and unmatched among other people, our Socialist author has his answer, Yes, there never was such free-handed outpouring, but it is too unrelated, too indiscriminate, too pauperizing. One most princely gift-bestower is thus described:

"And through the multitude of lesser, though still mighty, givers, comes that colossus of property, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, the jubilee plunger of beneficence, that rosy, gray-haired, nimble little figure, going to and fro between two continents, scattering library buildings as if he sowed wild oats, buildings that may or may not have some educational value, if presently they are reorganized and properly stocked with books. Anon he appals the thrifty burgesses of Dunfermline with vast and uncongenial responsibilities of expenditure; anon he precipitates the library of the late Lord Acton upon our embarrassed Mr. Morley; anon he pauperizes the students of Scotland. He diffuses his monument throughout the English speaking lands, amid circumstances of the most flagrant publicity; the receptive learned, the philanthropic noble, bow in expectant swaths before him."‡

Thus one by one the pedestaled gods in our Valhalla are "called down." There is no billingsgate, no rough hand-

*"The Future in America," p. 80.

†Matthew Arnold's statement is as follows: "England distributes itself into Barbarians, Philistines, and Populace. America is just ourselves, with the Barbarians quite left out, and the Populace nearly. This would leave the Philistines for the great bulk of the nation; a livelier sort of Philistines than our Philistine middle class which made and peopled the United States—a livelier sort of Philistine than ours, and with the pressure and the false ideal of our Barbarians taken away, but left all the more to himself and to have his full swing." "Civilization in the United States," p. 79.

‡"The Future in America," p. 94.

ling, but only a good humored weighing and measuring of objects that are found wanting. They are not even cast aside, but put back in their places as if this kindly iconoclast said to us, "Let them remain until you yourselves find them out. Soon enough they must be replaced by quite other symbols."

This quick-witted observer sees more and sees better than scores of others who have stayed longer and traveled farther. His social and scientific interests furnish an equipment for observing society as it just now exists in the United States. Our material strength and our political weakness are both phases of the capitalism which has been developed to its highest point. There is nothing that so fashions our entire life, religion, manners, morals, press, and education as this same capitalism, and it is precisely this central and determining force which the trained Socialist makes his study. The one needed lesson that modern socialism has for us is its criticism. The logic of its full and positive program, we should do well to hold at arm's length, but its strictures upon the present business and social organization contain truths that only the very blind will ignore.

The most constructive statesmanship of our time has boldly taken its hints from the Socialist. He may mistake much, he may be wild in his exaggerations, he may draw crazy inferences even as other speculators, but he has this advantage—his specialty of thought and study is concentrated upon what has come to be overmastering in this country:—our business methods, habits, and ambitions, and the devious ways through which these react upon our individual and collective life. Moulded after these material patterns are the prevailing ideals, the scrutiny of which are his main study.

Mr. Wells is one of the most luminous as he is one of the most fearless of these social arbiters. In "The Future in America" we meet the Socialist who knows the dry economics of his subject, but knows them so well as to clothe them in the imagery and the imagination of the poet.

The Story of American Painting*
VI. Modern Portrait Painting

By Charles Henry Fiske

[*The editors regret to announce that Miss Edwina Spencer is, on the advice of her physician, forced to relinquish the completion of her series upon American Painting. Miss Spencer has been working under great difficulties for some months past and her nervous breakdown follows in part as a result of her determined effort not to disappoint* THE CHAUTAUQUAN *readers. In view of this emergency the editors have been obliged to engage other competent writers to complete the series as outlined by Miss Spencer. This change of plan will explain any differences in treatment, which, of necessity, will result when a new hand endeavors to complete the unfulfilled plan of the original author.*]

THE most interesting personality if not the greatest figure in modern American painting is without doubt James Abbott McNeill Whistler. His relation to American art as distinct from world art is indeed tenuous for he passed by far the greater part of his life abroad, and were it not for his gay unremitting warfare waged against English

*The series on American Painting will be concluded in the April and May issues of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The articles heretofore printed are: "Foreword" and "Painting in Colonies" (September; "The Period of the Revolution" (October); "The Years of Preliminary Growth (November); "Formative Influences" (December); "The Development of Landscape and Marine Painting" (February).

blindness and conservatism and his radical disagreement with British taste in art he might better be considered an Englishman.

Whistler was born in 1834 in Lowell, Massachusetts, his father being a distinguished American army officer and engineer, who at one time was in the employ of the Russian government. As destined for the military career traditional in his family James Whistler was early committed to West Point Military Academy, in which institution he acquired a good knowledge of drawing and a heavy burden of demerits due to minor infractions of the regulations. At West Point he remained nearly three years, his further connection being severed by the board of management when he, in an examination in chemistry, discoursed fluently, if unscientifically, upon the nature of silicon. This element Whistler called "a gas or a saponifiable fat" and for his frivolity was cast upon the world and ultimately into an artistic career.

He went to London and then to Paris, studying art in the latter city under Gleyre. Art training, however, had little influence upon his manner. He was in the largest sense self taught and developed from his own study and practise the art principles which he later embodied in his own compositions.

His first successes were in etching, a field of art in which he is acknowledged the superior of all moderns and by some is claimed to be the equal or superior of Rembrandt. These early etchings, chiefly of subjects drawn from the Thames waterside, gave him artistic standing in England and though this was often seriously impaired by his later work he was throughout his life a figure of commanding interest and importance in the world of art, as well by reason of his clever tongue and "gentle art of making enemies" as by his skill as a painter.

Whistler's work is in a wide variety of mediums—oil, pastel, water color, lithograph, etching, etc., and in almost

as widely varying styles, for as he grew older and more skilled in the use of his tools his methods departed more widely from those of his contemporaries and, as well, from his own first style. As some critic has observed, Whistler was at first a realist with romantic tendencies, but in his later pictures the realism becomes increasingly scant and the artist endeavors merely to suggest in harmonious colors and arrangements in lines and spaces the impression which a scene had made upon him. These fanciful creations are called frequently "nocturnes" or "symphonies," the very terminology suggesting the purpose of the painter to create a series of colors whose effect should prove as esthetically satisfying as the harmonies brought forth by an orchestra, a beauty totally independent of words or accuracy of representation, a thing complete and satisfying in itself.

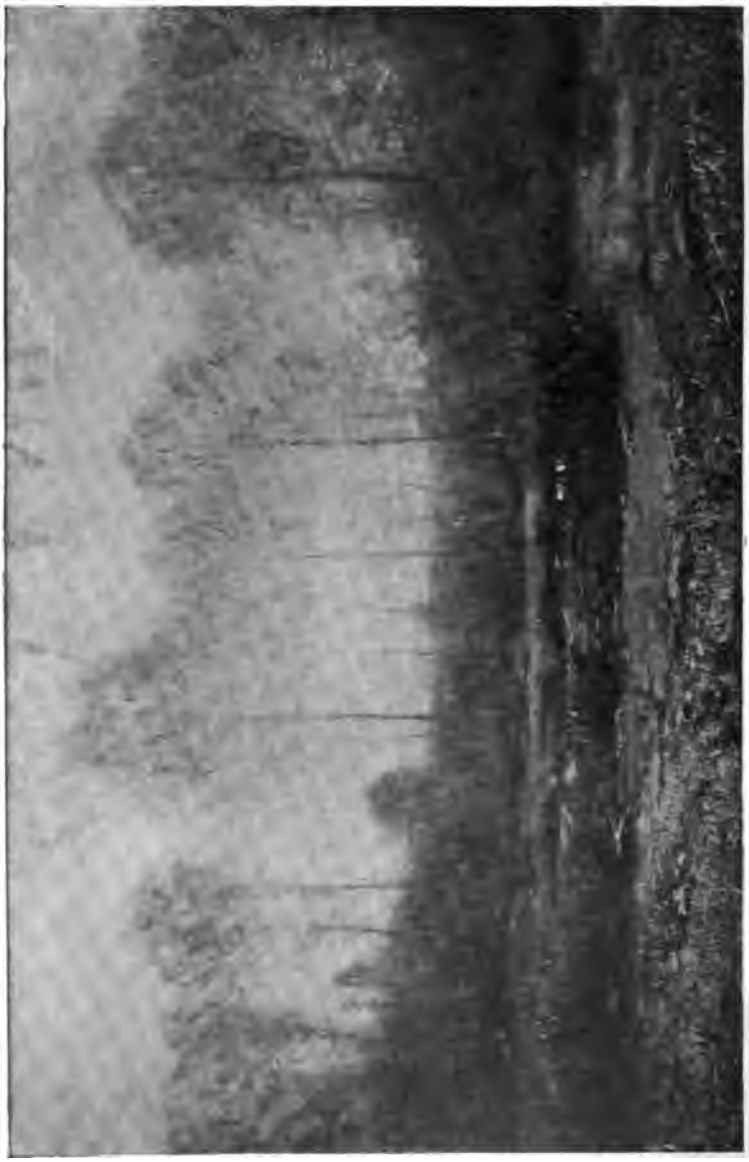
The purpose of Whistler in thus developing his art was a conscious one. His famous art lecture "Ten O'clock," which stirred the art world of London, denotes a perfect selfconsciousness of artistic purpose. In this lecture Whistler attacked the world-old axiom of art "go to nature; paint nature as she is." Nature, said Whistler, was usually wrong. It was the duty of the artist to select from her incongruities only those elements of beauty which, harmoniously arranged, make of a picture a thing more harmonious than nature herself. The colors and forms of the natural world Whistler likened to the keyboard of a piano from which the musician selects only certain notes, arranging these into a harmony which gives the impression of beauty which he desires to set forth. An artist in his line and color should in like manner, seek merely to suggest the *spirit* or essence of the scene he depicts, indicating as concisely as possible the elements of beauty obscured by a mass of irrelevant detail.

Whistler carried his theories to their logical conclusion and as a result his later pictures, which became slighter and slighter, with little pretense to realism or careful detail,

"Autumn Gold," by Hugh H. Breckenridge, Fort Washington, Pa.

Low Tide—St. Malo, by Carlton T. Chapman.

A Squally Day—North River, by Carlton T. Chapman.



An Evening in May, by Dwight Tryon. In the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo.

Bringing Home the Cattle—Coast of Florida, by Thomas Moran. In the Albright Gallery, Buffalo.

Portrait of Edward Robinson, by J. S. Sargent.

Dorothy and Her Sister, by W. M. Chase.

A Lady in Gray (water color), by James Abbott McNeill Whistler. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Portrait of Professor Leslie Miller, by Thomas Eakins.

Portrait of Lady, by Frank W. Benson. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Portrait of the Artist's Wife, by Alfred Quinton Collins. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Carmencita, by John S. Sargent. In the Luxembourg Gallery, Paris.

Portrait of Walt Whitman, by John W. Alexander. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Portrait of Mrs. Wiles and Miss Gladys Wiles, by Irving R. Wiles.

The Gilt Shawl, by Louis Loeb. In the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo.

Young Woman in Black, by Robert Henri.

Portrait of Lady in Black, by William M. Chase. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Mrs. Carl Meyer and Her Children, by John S. Sargent.

Portrait of Cyrus W. Field, by Daniel Huntington. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

A Lady in Black, by H. Siddons Mowbray. In the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo.

A Portrait, by Seymour Thomas. In the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo.

Portrait of the Artist's Mother, by James Abbott McNeill Whistler. In the Luxembourg Gallery, Paris.

seemed to his fellow painters hardly more than sketches, beautiful but unfinished. These, the most characteristic of Whistler's works are, therefore, the least popular, and his fame rests largely upon his earlier, more realistic etchings and the portrait paintings which mark the transition between his two manners. Of his paintings in this style the most famous is his portrait of his mother, painted probably a short time before 1874, and called by Whistler merely an "Arrangement in Gray and Black." This painting, here reproduced, was bought by the French Government for the small sum of £160 and now hangs in the Luxembourg Gallery in Paris. It illustrates Whistler's best skill both as a realistic painter in its finish of detail and as a colorist in its harmony of tones. Whistler persisted that it was of no interest to the public that the painting was a portrait of his mother: it should be judged by its value as an arrangement in color and spaces. But the public persists in seeing in it not only these qualities but a beautiful portrait of a fine old lady, a portrait with a strong human appeal as well as merely esthetic beauty.

Whistler's position in the world of art is still undetermined. It is uncertain whether or not posterity will care greatly for many of his paintings and the theories of art which underlie them. However this may be he has had a great influence upon the art of his day and is at present widely regarded as one of the really great artists produced in the nineteenth century. Some, at least, of his pictures, as, for example, the portrait of his mother already described, a portrait of Carlyle painted at about the same time, and several charming children's pictures, seem destined for immortality.

America's claim to one of the most distinguished of living artists, John S. Sargent, is still more slender than in the case of Whistler. It rests upon heredity rather than environment, for Sargent though the son of American parents was born in Florence, in 1856, educated abroad,

and with the exception of occasional visits to this country has spent the greater part of his life in England. Of New England stock, the son of a retired physician, Sargent's early surroundings were those of refinement and culture. Added to these was the atmosphere of Florence where he passed his boyhood, an atmosphere to which his sensitive temperament responded the more readily because his parents were themselves so keenly awake to its spirit. His early training was received at the Academy of Fine Arts in Florence, his decided gifts soon making themselves apparent. His facility of execution was particularly marked and when at the age of seventeen he went to Paris to study under Carolus-Duran the collection of drawings which he handed in was looked upon with amazement by his associates. His modest disposition, reflective temperament and eagerness to learn saved him from the perils which await those who have the dangerous gift of facility in work and he assimilated the teachings of his master with that absorbing power of genius which takes from others what it needs and fuses it into new forms which reflect its own peculiar temperament. His portrait of Carolus painted at twenty-three showed how he had grasped the master's method. To use the phaseology of one of his critics:

"The basis of instruction was not an infinitely elaborated charcoal drawing of the nude figure, but a head blocked in with paint, the great construction planes kept simple, their edges meeting in harsh, straight lines in the work of the beginners, but the paint laid on thickly, and all the attention concentrated on getting the best relation of mass, tone, and color. Not until this had been done were the pupils permitted to soften the edges and elaborate details.

"The feeling for this underlying construction in form and tone Sargent gained thoroughly. It is the framework unseen, but all pervasive on which his pictures are built, and differentiates them absolutely from the most skilful of his imitators. To this must be added his ease in the mechanical manipulation of paint which would be encouraged and developed by the teaching and example of Carolus. To spread great surfaces of pure clean color, to touch on them lights and shades and details with a flowing brush, but so surely and firmly that they lie bright and clear on the wet underpainting, to invent strange and apparently accidental turns of the brush that give effects with an accuracy beyond the reach of the most persevering labor,—all this is of his nature. The be-

holder stands in delighted bewilderment as before a juggler more mystifying than any that India or Japan has produced. To other painters such dexterity has come, if at all, after long labor; but it was Sargent's from the first."

His years of study in Paris were enriched later by a visit to Spain where he felt the fascination of Velasquez as only a genius may comprehend the work of a kindred craftsman. For a time he lived also in Holland attracted by the masterly portraits of Franz Hals and out of these influences his individual genius evolved its own powers of expression.

During Whistler's lifetime so ardently did his admirers and those of Sargent contest the merits of these two masters that Continental juries of award assigned one medal of honor to each, realizing that any recognition of one above the other would produce an atmosphere of criticism quite intolerable. Sargent's achievements have, since Whistler's death, easily placed him far in advance of all English or American contemporaries and in the judgment of many he may be ranked among the few great artists today in any country. His work naturally falls into three groups: the well known decorative paintings in the Boston Public Library, the prophets, etc., his *genre* pictures, studies of Venice and other scenes, and his great collection of portraits which have been widely exhibited in this country and in Europe.

One of the first impressions felt by a student of Sargent's portraits is their remarkably life-like quality. With unerring instinct he has seemed to divine the individuality of the sitter whose dominant traits of character forthwith stand out from the canvas. Indeed, so expressive are these portraits that in some cases the artist has been accused of revealing more of the human nature of his subject than the public had a right to know.

Infinitely varied too are his resources in the matter of pose, of costume and other accessories. Each canvas has its own peculiar charm. In one instance perhaps the effect

of the portrait will be heightened by the subtle touches which he gives to the background, or again, as in the case of the portrait of Mrs. Meyer and her children, the sofa may become an important element in the color scheme of the picture. This group is one of Sargent's most exquisite effects in portraiture. The costume of the lady, which is of a delicate shell pink, is painted with the broad, firm touch so characteristic of his work, and the entire picture, large as it is, conveys an impression of lightness and elegance admirably suited to the subject.

This marvelous dexterity, this sureness and lightness combined with ease in Sargent's work, has been secured only through genius allied to exacting labor. Long and persistently has he wrestled with the problems of his art, painting a portrait, then scraping it out, and repeating this process a score of times till in the end the result was achieved. Kenyon Cox calls him "one of the greatest virtuosi of the brush" and gives a hint of the secret of his power: "It does not satisfy him that his work is right or even that it is actually easy for him to make it so—it must *look* easy. He counts upon the pleasure his virtuosity will afford you for a great part of his effect. In this particular and perfectly legitimate charm of art,—the charm of prompt and efficient execution, the magic of the hand—Sargent is, perhaps, the equal of any one, even of the greatest."

As the student comes to know Sargent's art more familiarly, comparing portrait with portrait and with those of the great masters of the past, a certain lack of spiritual quality becomes more and more apparent. Marvelously true are his portrayals of that great gallery of men and women of varied types who have sat to him for his delineation of their characters. Sometimes the truth is unwelcome but the artist unhesitatingly presents the man's character as he sees it, and his discriminating acquaintance with the world in which his sitters live gives him a wide range of

motives and temperaments and worldly conditions to draw upon. Yet although the result is often most happily favorable, it retains a certain impersonal quality, as if the artist viewed the character dispassionately, without that sympathy which looks behind everyday actions to the springs of a man's life. Quite exceptional, however, in this respect are his portraits of children in which depth of sentiment and tenderness of feeling are strikingly apparent. In the portraits of Homer Saint-Gaudens and tiny Beatrice Goelet one feels a sympathetic quality which is enlisted to the full in portraying the subtle charm of childhood. There are those who discover in his *genre* paintings a more poetical and creative type of work which they believe is the real Sargent rather than the Sargent of portraiture, splendid as are his achievements in that field. Happily the master is still in his prime and we have much to anticipate in the further revealings of his genius.

William H. Chase is rightly considered one of the present leaders in American art, not only because of his vast and varied creative work but as well for his commanding place in all progressive art movements in this country. Born in Indiana, Chase first studied art at the Academy of Design in New York after which he began practising his profession in St. Louis. He soon went to Europe, however, completing his art education at Munich. While here he painted largely still life, beginning his portrait work later, when at Venice, with a portrait of Frank Duveneck, an artist who had some influence on Chase's style.

Since his return to this country Chase has tried his hand in nearly all mediums and at all kinds of subjects —portraits, landscapes, still life, etc. Even of greater importance to American art than his pictures, excellent as these are, has been his influence upon the younger painters, for he has been a popular and highly successful teacher. Chase, as a painter, is notable for all the excellences of technique—draughtmanship, skill in color, and brush work.

He takes great delight in the practise of his skill and devotes the same scrupulous care to the accurate portrayal of an inanimate detail as to the portrayal of a feature in his sitter.

Portrait painting though but one of the fields in which Chase has achieved distinction is represented by a number of excellent canvases. He is not so uniformly successful as Sargent at catching a life-like pose but his work at its best is interpretative and tender. This is particularly the case in his portraits of children, one of which is here reproduced. Much the same charm and sweetness of youth is conveyed in the portrait of the lady in black which is also to be found in these pages.

John W. Alexander, whose portrait of Walt Whitman speaks for itself, has already taken high rank for his mural decoration as well as for his portrait painting. His portraits indeed have a decorative quality and are so painted that they seem in keeping with the walls on which they are hung. They are apparently simple, strong in outline, and have the sketchy quality characteristic of some of Whistler's work. Alexander is remarkable for his use of greens, using green often for flesh tints with peculiarly satisfactory results. In his portraits of women the broad sweep of the drapery is very characteristic. The pose of the figures is as far as possible from the commonplace, so skilfully adjusted that the long firm lines which have a certain rhythmic quality give balance and unity to the whole. A further quality, which is at once noticeable, is the thinness of his paint. The coarse canvas shows through, but this apparent crudity really contributes much to the effectiveness of his painting, the grain of the canvas diversifying and giving quality to what would otherwise be meaningless and thin background. Alexander's most important work of late has been the mural decoration of the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburg. This work will be discussed next month under the head of "Mural Painting."

Besides the work of these leaders of today space forbids mention of more than a few other examples of American portraiture of the present. In Collins one feels the influence of the old Dutch masters to whose work he was much attracted. Eakins' skill manifests itself among other ways in the admirable pose of his subjects and a certain sureness of line. In the art of Irving R. Wiles portraiture has been a somewhat recent development and in his portrayal of his wife and daughter there reappears the grace and delicacy combined with breadth of handling so characteristic of his figure work. H. Siddons Mowbray, who is turning his attention especially to mural painting has in his portrait work a refinement of method which seems to seek for grace rather than the portrayal of individuality in character. One may very profitably compare with these the portraits by Louis Loeb and Seymour Thomas and the skilful handling and shadow, richness of tone and depth of color in such a study as Henri's "Young Woman in Black." American art in portraiture from the days of Daniel Huntington when moral qualities often predominated over purely artistic ones, has passed through a widely varied development. English influence has come and gone. Germany, Italy, Spain, Holland, and France have lent their inspiration to the artists of our country. The American temperament unwilling to be held long by conventions has shown its experimental quality again and again and has gradually formulated artistic ideals which will afford to future men of genius a stimulating atmosphere.

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(*End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for April.*)

Immigrants on the Land

I. Italian Colonists

By Kellogg Durland

THE "immigration problem" in the United States is essentially a distribution problem. New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, the great ports of the Atlantic coast, are glutted with hale and hearty toilers from over seas while the vast hinterland—the west, the south, the southwest, and the northwest—craves the work these hands have crossed the world to seek. During the last fiscal year of the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization 1,285,349 souls entered our borders. These numbers are striking from any point of view, but their significance is appreciated only when we remember that thirty per cent. of this aggregate number claimed New York as their destination, seventeen per cent. were bound for Pennsylvania, seven per cent. for Massachusetts, and five per cent. for New Jersey. In other words, nearly sixty per cent. were journeying to four eastern states. Meanwhile there is stagnation of agricultural and industrial development in great areas of the continent owing to the lack of labor. "Ghettos," "Little Italies," and other foreign quarters are building in the cities, and while these bits of the old world are often picturesque and interesting on the surface, they are a menace to the physical well-being of a large part of our population.

One of the most difficult phenomena of alien life in America is the congestion in the cities of people who have never known city life—peasants from the olive-clad hills and sunny valleys of Italy. Why should they transform their lives from tillers of the soil to town laborers? The answer is obvious. New York is America to most of them. Their friends, emigrants before them, have come to New York, perhaps settled in New York, and the tradition of America in Italy has become the tradition of New York.

What is true of the Italians is equally true of other nationalities. Hence it becomes the task of America to create a new tradition among our aliens, one that shall spread back to the old countries of Europe and take root there, a tradition of open America, of the opportunities of the fields, the inducements of agriculture.

Half a century ago manual labor in the United States was done by Germans. As the Germans adopted a higher and higher scale of living the Irish took up the tools they dropped; behind the Irish have come the Slavs, the Poles, the Italians. But while the Italians are entering the mines, building our railroads and lending themselves to the hardest kinds of labor, they are also encroaching upon the trades of the Jews in the cities, and one of the impending tragedies of our life is the sweat shop gathered over into the keeping of the Italians. Not that the sweat shop is less of an evil in the Italian quarter than in the Ghetto but it is an institution stamped for destruction by American standards of life, not for perpetuation from decade to decade and to be handed from nationality to nationality for preservation. Men and women with hands hardened by long use of the hoe and ploughshare should be saved from the thralldom of the needle. If streams of immigration from the countries sending us the greatest number of aliens could be directed through the port cities to the sections of our country where there is the kind of work best suited for each nationality the immigration "problem" would speedily be reduced. The Poles and Slovaks would go to the mines and mills, and such other peasantry as are born and traditional agriculturists, the Russians and the Italians, to the land.

Experiments have been in process in different places in the country, directed to this end, for some time. For the most part they have been on a comparatively small scale, hence their influence has been but slight on the whole question. At the same time these foreign colonies offer opportunity for studying their progress, according to the "labor-

atory method," and taken as they are represent results of considerable value.

The two races amongst whom these colonization experiments have recently been made, are those giving us their greatest numbers—the Jews and the Italians. Nearly one hundred and fifty thousand Jews were admitted to the United States last year, and, approximately three hundred thousand Italians. If these two races could be attracted to the soil, to the cultivation of our vast farming lands, the importance of the movement would be beyond estimate.

I have had occasion to visit the oldest and most notable experiments in Jewish and Italian colonization, those in southern New Jersey, and this article together with the one which will follow next month, is based on the results of my personal observations among the colonists of these two peoples. The Jew is temperamentally, characteristically, physically, traditionally, and historically different from the Italian. It could not be otherwise, therefore, than that their colonization efforts should be along different though parallel lines, and that their work should of necessity be viewed from different standpoints. Geographically these experiments in South Jersey are near together, but in no other respect. In this article I shall discuss the Italian colonies, and next month I will report on the Jewish settlements.

The story of the first Italian land colony in southern New Jersey is soon told. It was founded by an Italian political refugee to this country, Signor Secchi de Casale. This man had established the first Italian newspaper in New York, called *L'Eco d'Italia,* through which he had endeavored to keep alive the flame of Italian patriotism among the Italians who were then in the United States. He was a disciple of Mazzini and a companion of Garibaldi and other Italian patriots who were instrumental in the union of Italy and with whom he had fought for her independence.

In the year 1849, after the unsuccessful attempt to

form a Roman republic, he and several of his companions in the Cause migrated to New York. De Casale lived with Garibaldi in the village of Stapleton, Staten Island, in a house still standing. As the Italians in this country increased, de Casale found his interest in the welfare of his immigrant countrymen growing and their need was at that time so apparent to him that he felt called upon to suggest some legitimate and wise channel for the expression of their energies and for the development of their abilities.

As a reward for his services to the Italians in America, King Victor Emanuel later knighted de Casale.

While his efforts were constant in many directions, the most important accomplishment of his life was the establishment of an agricultural colony near Vineland, New Jersey.

Mr. Charles Landis, the founder of the city of Vineland, coöperated with Chevalier de Casale in his colonization scheme. The first group of peasants brought here in a body were sent to the colony in 1878, although a few years previous to this time certain individual Italians had exploited the work of berry picking in the vicinity, notably at Hammonton. From these beginnings grew the somewhat extended Italian colonization that we find today.

On the whole, the district of South Jersey is drear and unlovely; it is flat and hill-less, covered with scrub oak, stunted pine, and in many places consists chiefly of large swamps. For years it lay in its primal state because few American farmers had the energy to apply themselves to its improvement and reclamation. Certain towns on the railway there were, small and not very prosperous, and with these as a basis, the work of the immigrant colonists has gone on. The surface soil for the most part is light and sandy, often white like the sand of sea-beaches, but there is a sub-soil which is fairly rich, and on the whole it has been proved adaptable for certain crops. Grapes, sweet potatoes, beans, and tomatoes all grow admirably throughout

this belt, and peaches and other fruits have been satisfactorily grown in certain sections.

Italian peasants born and accustomed to intensely hard work took hold of the great task of reclaiming the difficult lands that surrounded their settlements, and by dint of patience and great labor they have learned what crops can be depended upon. With the berries, the beans, and the sweet potatoes, and later the grapes, for a beginning, the early colonists developed farms of remarkable prosperity. American settlers who had once occupied farms in the neighborhood grew discouraged and many of them left, allured by the call of the town, or the more fertile fields of the middle west. These deserted plantations were quickly occupied by the olive-skinned newcomers, and today the farms once occupied by Americans are worked side by side with the farms of the brothers of the Italian pioneers who themselves cleared away the virgin tangles and made the sandy, barren dunes fertile.

Since the first settlers took up their living these Italian colonists have slowly increased until today they number some thousands. Not a large population, perhaps when compared to our aggregate Italian population, but these colonies are only experiments, samples as it were, and in many other sections are similar experiments. Taken together the results are important. For convenience we are noting the story of South Jersey, but there are other colonies in California, in Louisiana, in Connecticut, in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, New York, in Tennessee, and Texas. These have each sprung up independently without special attention but the readiness shown by the colonists to adapt themselves to the soil is clear indication of what may be expected when the government undertakes in a systematic way the work of settling the Italians on the soil throughout the country in such places as their labor is most needed.

No people coming to America can live as economically

as do the Italians. Their standard of living is by no means in conformity with that general condition of comfort that is called the "American standard of living." Ultimately, however, the Italians desire things which are foreign to them at home and gradually they raise their own standards. But at the outset the rigid economy they practice is a help.

The Italians start in life absolutely independent. Families come down from the cities, Philadelphia and New York, as berry pickers. They acquire a little money and a small, crude shack in which they live until they have paid off all indebtedness and get a little ahead, when they begin to build their own homes. The Jews, on the other hand, invariably start with a burden of debt to carry for their land and for their homes, and the cost of living to the Jew is always greater than to the Italian. He must have his wine at Passover and he must support his Talmud-Torah and his lodge, and oftentimes he is sending money home to Russia to bring over the remainder of his family, and it is a number of years before he finds himself on a clear footing. The Italian, in the meantime, free of debt, forging ahead by small steps, succeeds in acquiring his house and land free from all debt.

The Italian, more than any other alien, comes to America with the idea of saving a sum of money sufficient to enable him to return to his native land for the remainder of his life. But the immigrants who have been a few years in this country acquire certain habits and customs which they are unable to take back with them to Italy, and rather than repudiate these, they prefer to bring their families to America. Each year more and more Italian families are thus brought to America by Italian immigrants who have established themselves in this country and who, contrary to their early expectations, have renounced their early ambition of returning to Italy, and are now only desirous of making a permanent home in this country. This is a phe-

nomenon, however, which is only acquired unconsciously with their Americanization.

The comparative agricultural conditions in America and in Italy are tremendously in favor of America. At home the Italian peasant has lived for many generations in towns which are in many cases the outgrowths of burgs and feudal castles under whose protection they were originally built. The peasants go out in the early morning to the farms and gardens, the fields and vineyards, which sometimes are distant several miles, and return at evening. This regime carries with it certain discomforts and physical disadvantages resulting from lack of proper and comfortable houses, from excessive toil, and such heavy taxation as leaves a residue of profit so small that the comforts and many of the necessities of life, are impossible. This toilsome regime has been the direct cause of the low standard of living which the Italians bring with them, but which in this country enables the Italian to more readily adjust himself to a difficult and stubborn environment and to reclaim land which ordinary American farmers have despaired of. Italian peasants who come to New York are, for the most part, entirely ignorant of the agricultural possibilities of this country. To them America is New York, but when offered a safe conduct to the soil in the agricultural districts, the Italian finds the advantages of American country life far in excess of any dreams he may have cherished. The comforts and independence afforded the American farmer, even the Americanized immigrant farmer, appeal to him, and he willingly undertakes the most difficult and disagreeable of work for a period of years in order that he may win the position of an American citizen. This ideal which is so easily placed before him is stimulating to good citizenship, to industrious labor, and to rapid, though not too rapid Americanization.

One of the great difficulties in the establishment of agricultural colonies in any section of the country is in the mat-

ter of securing a ready market for the crops. The South Jersey colonists do not have this difficulty to contend with. The grape juice companies in and near Vineland use not only all the grapes which all of the colonists in that section can produce, but many more.

The most profitable crop of all, however, is probably that of sweet potatoes. The Vineland brand of sweet potatoes brings from twenty-five cents to one dollar more in the market than any other brand. Some of the Italian farmers make as much as eight hundred dollars a season, from six acres of sweet potatoes. The Allivine Company, also near Vineland, has an enormous cannery. This cannery offers an adequate market for all the sweet potatoes, lima beans, and tomatoes that the colonists can raise. The canning of sweet potatoes is carried on on an enormous scale. Every inducement is made to encourage the colonists (Jewish and Italian alike) to raise more of these products each year, and yet the demand is entirely out of proportion to the supply. This cannery employs two hundred hands and runs three months in the year, from the middle of August to the middle of November. Its output is sometimes as high as thirty thousand cans of tomatoes a day. The machinery is most perfect and tomatoes are canned at the rate of forty-two cans a minute.

The labor employed is mostly Italian, men and women. Rough work of the cannery is generally undertaken by Italians. The skinning of tomatoes, for example, which is unskilled labor and fairly remunerative, will not be touched by Jewish girls—it hurts their hands; and while the work really is perfectly clean, it looks nasty; it also hurts their hands, owing to the fact that the tomatoes are acid and the water out of which they have to be taken is hot. The Italian women are paid at the rate of three cents a bucket for skinning these tomatoes and the average woman makes anywhere from seventy-five cents to two dollars a day. Occasionally an expert worker will make three dollars a

day. Here as in many other cases the Italians come bringing their entire families and it is common to see a man and woman and several children at work filling buckets with the skinned tomatoes. The company pays farmers eight dollars a ton for the tomatoes which they bring in. To stimulate tomato raising the Allivine Company furnish the local farmers with manure and fertilizer at low rates, sometimes cost price, exacting in return promises from the farmers that they will put in so many acres of tomatoes for the following season. It is rare, however, to find a farmer who abides by his promise and puts in as many crops of tomates as the company prescribed. They utilize their fertilizers for other crops. Sometimes they take a chance on another crop being more successful, as, for example, sweet potatoes. One year several farmers made a good deal of money from their sweet potato crops, so the next year instead of putting in a reasonable number of sweet potatoes and a reasonable number of tomatoes and other crops, they, so to speak, put all of their eggs in one basket by devoting themselves very largely to sweet potatoes. If they do this for several years successively, there is danger of a sweet potato "slump," in which case they will lose heavily.

The canning of sweet potatoes is an industry which the Allivine Company has been developing extensively, and they are restricted in the matter of more extensive development only through the lack of supply of sweet potatoes. In the west and middle west where sweet potatoes are not grown, there is a tremendous demand for canned sweet potatoes. For the so-called "prime sweets," that is to say, the first size, largest sweet potatoes, the farmers receive five dollars a barrel. They have had heretofore no market for their small potatoes but now the Allivine Company pays seventy-five cents a barrel for them.

Although the Allivine Farm is closer to Jewish colonies than to the Italian it is a boon to both peoples. It is suffi-

ciently near to the Italians to offer a ready market for their produce and at the same time to give employment to pickers in season, and indoor work during the canning of the crops. The Allivine Farm, which is run in conjunction with the cannery and vice versa, not only serves as a model for the foreign farmers of the region but gives employment to a large number, who are frequently glad of such an opportunity for apprenticeship.

Sometimes the lima bean crops on the farm include 15,000 poles. For picking these beans Italians are used almost exclusively. They pick and shell one hundred pounds of beans for two dollars. At the cannery five dollars is paid for each one hundred pounds of shelled lima beans brought in. These examples serve to indicate the kind of encouragement offered to Italian colonists in this section. It is meager, but these thrifty people grasp at anything.

Hammonton is the largest center of the Italians. This is a village of about five thousand inhabitants, more than one-half of whom are Italians. The non-Italian population clusters about the center of the village and close to the station, while the Italians are scattered round the land throughout the town which comprises something over forty-four square miles of land.

The best testimony in regard to the desirability of the Italians as workers, as neighbors, and as citizens comes from the Americans of the section, the people who have lived longest near them, who know them best. I found universal praise and appreciation. The industry of the Italians, their thrift, their economy, are qualities that appeal to the native American mind. Furthermore, the Italians attend to their own business. They are sober. They are clannish, which makes too rapid assimilation impossible. They observe their old world customs, especially their charming and picturesque religious fetes, and these make to their advantage with their neighbors.

The report of the Industrial Commission on Immigra-

tion showed that "the ever increasing Italian immigration to this country presents this striking feature, that although eighty per cent. of it is composed of the peasantry of Italy, it does not come to till the American soil but settles itself in the American cities where it meets with and causes endless evils."

In Europe intensive methods of farming have been learned generations ago through necessity. Generations, and perhaps centuries back, some countries were already so populous that careful and scientific intensive farming was the only resource against certain obvious evils which are bound to result from repletion and satiation of population. The experiments at colonization in South Jersey indicate that the Italian farmer is attentive to his work, industrious, and successful in keeping up the fertility of the soil and in continuously extracting from it the maximum yield year by year. Prof. J. F. Crowell, as a witness before the Industrial Commission, testified that "the economic traditions of the European farmer are one of the most valuable assets in American agriculture," adding that the foreign colonists in certain sections of this country "have been the mainstay and bulwark of progressive agriculture." A visit to the Italian colonies in the vicinity of Hammonton and Vineland reveals ample evidence of the splendid possibilities for developing successful agriculturists of the Italians who year after year come to us in scores of thousands.

It is indeed time that southern and western states took the initiative in attracting these people to their fields. Not by encouraging peonage and other abominable, un-American economic systems which are in vogue today in several southern states, but by insuring fair and honorable labor conditions so that hardy laborers trained and disciplined in Europe will come gladly to take up the work that so urgently needs the doing, thus affording them from the very outset opportunity to contribute to the further development of our continent and the upbuilding of a strong and stable nation.

Some Great American Scientists*

VII. Edward Drinker Cope.

By William Hosea Ballou

A bust of Professor Edward Drinker Cope was recently unveiled in the American Museum of Natural History, New York. On a floor above are many of the remains of extinct animals (mammals, reptiles, fishes, etc.) collected and named by Cope. Other specimens of both existing and extinct species, collected and named by him or collected by others and named by him, are scattered among other institutions. I once wrote and published his bibliography in which I credited him with naming over 1,100 of about 3,300 species of extinct vertebrates new to science. He was undoubtedly author of some 3,000 published scientific papers and works. I have frequently heard it estimated that he expended at least $80,000 in scientific exploration and investigation alone. It is certain that commencing as a wealthy man, he died April 12, 1897, in very meager circumstances, having exhausted all his resources available in behalf of American science. Professor Cope's life work was thorough. In examining the works of his successors in paleontology and other branches of the natural sciences, I have noticed few attempts to correct alleged errors of Cope's or to change his classifications. On the contrary, his successors have found in his work a basis, a solid foundation where they could begin at the point he left off and extend exact research.

How shall we classify such a man among his fellows?

*The first article of this series, "Asa Gray," by Prof. Charles Reid Barnes, appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September; the second, "John James Audubon," by Prof. Samuel C. Schmucker, in October; the third, "Simon Newcomb," by Prof. Malcolm McNeill, in November; the fourth, "Louis Agassiz," by David Starr Jordan, in December; the fifth, "Samuel Pierpont Langley," by William F. Magie, in January; sixth, "Thomas Alva Edison," by George Iles, in February.

All of his predecessors and many of his contemporaries, have been successfully more or less assailed and their works shorn because of errors or false philosophy. His work stands and must stand. Can we pass him by as merely the greatest naturalist of his time, when such men as Darwin, Agassiz, Linneaus, Humboldt, etc., stand more or less discredited in the light of larger collections and more exact data? I am of the opinion, to say the least, that in that dim future, when all of the collections shall have been made, all classification and nomenclature completed and accepted, the name of Cope will be the illustrious one and that he will form most of the base of the American scientific pyramid.

I should like the reader to form a conception of Professor Cope in the right way, which is not by attempting to read his works, unless so inclined. The reader must at some time be near some great or lesser museum. Enter any one of them and ask the curator to show you some of the extinct species named by Cope, or casts, pictures, restorations, or remains of them. If in Chicago, step into the Field Columbian Museum and ask his friend and one of his successors working on mosasaurs, Professor S. W. Williston. If in New York, visit the American Museum of Natural History and ask his friend, pupil, scientific executor, one of his successors and, I think, the foremost American paleontologist of today, President Henry Fairfield Osborn. In the National Museum must be a vast display of Cope's industry. I venture to say that the name of Cope will be found on hundreds of specimens in the museums of the Universities of Kansas, Colorado, and other states, in the Davenport (Ia.) Academy of Natural Science, etc. To see a man's work is to be quickly educated as to his biography. You may be sure that, if in any museum, you do not find the work of Cope dominant, so far as his field of research is concerned, little that you see there will be worth while, but all of it will stand more or less discredited. It is too soon yet for the name of Cope to have

been heard by so many people as the name of Darwin. Let us hope that there will never be such a popular misconception of it as there has been concerning the name of Darwin, who has been generally considered even by intelligent men, who ought to have known and read better, as the author of the theory that man descended from monkeys. Darwin did mention the ape in the line of the predecessors of man in other geological eras, but only a cartoonist, and for the purpose of humor, could have associated a monkey with his theory of evolution. It is not, however, too soon for people who wish to be considered intelligent and well read, to have heard of the name of Cope and to know something about him.

Professor Cope was a Quaker. He married a Quaker girl. None of his discoveries affected his profound religious belief. He died the simple Quaker as quotations from his last written letter, twelve days before his death will show:

"I suppose thee [his aunt] is an invalid, and if so I can sympathize with thee feelingly. I have been confined to my room, barring a few walks out, for five weeks today, some of the days confined to bed.

"I have suffered great pain and am now recovering slowly from the depression caused by powerful drugs taken for relief. My dangerous symptoms have passed away, but the morphia-belladonna combination makes the strongest constitution stagger. The mental depression is dreadful, so that nothing in life is in any degree enjoyable, except an occasional draught of ice water. So I pity everybody I hear of who is sick, and am glad to see so many people well. To be well seems to me now to be something extraordinarily fortunate.

"I do not expect to leave this world yet awhile, but I shall do so when the time comes with the full belief that it will be a change greatly for the better.

"The relation of the Supreme [Being] to men is that of a father to children, and if we keep the relation true, He will not fail. To be sick, is good for us sometimes. It corrects your perspective of human life, and sets things in a proportion which we must sometimes see. In active life we have our special preoccupation of mind, and see chiefly those things. So we do our work, and must do it, but to take a pause sometimes is good."

Dr. Persefor Frazer, the distinguished geologist of Philadelphia, intimately associated with Professor Cope

during life, one of his biographers and bibliographers, may well be quoted on this point:

"The dominating motive of Cope's character was reverence for pure religion and pure science. In his view, these occupied totally different fields; were not in conflict, but on the contrary, each was of assistance to the comprehension and the proper expression of the other. Yet, although he acknowledged that the human faculties called into play by each, were different at the present time, he never abandoned the belief that one day they would be the same, and that in the progress of science the proofs of a future life and of a beneficent Creator and Savior would be reached. Few men have succeeded so well in concealing from any one, friend or relative, however close, all sides of his multiform character. At his death, when his letters to many different correspondents were brought together there was not one of those who knew him most intimately but was surprised at a phase of thought developed to some others which had been unknown to the first. His scientific friends were amazed at the profound religious feelings which he had always exhibited to his nearest relatives; and these at the broad views of social problems which he has imbibed in his intercourse with the world."

Professor Cope was born July 28, 1840, in Philadelphia, where he died April 12, 1897, holding the chair of paleontology in the University of Pennsylvania, and owning and editing the *American Naturalist*. In my university days, I was a close and fascinated reader of that magazine, which printed my own first observations in natural history and of which I became later for a time, its Science News Editor, a department which, with my editorship, was properly abolished because each specialist demanded the right to announce the discoveries in his own specialty without interference by any specialist of any other specialty. The pianist, you know, objects to the criticism of the cellist and the blacksmith. Shortly after leaving the university I met Professor Cope at Boston and until his death was on most intimate terms with him, so intimate that we even indulged once in the most violent quarrel and the next day forgot it. I was the first, last, and almost the only journalist through whom his discoveries were given out to the public press. Although I was down with la grippe and he was in his last sickness, we worked out together his view of the appearance in life, of the principal of the extinct

monsters he had discovered and named which appeared after his death in the *Century Magazine* of November, 1897. He made the sketches of the saurians which therein figured as in life on rough paper which Charles R. Knight painted in water colors, while Professor Osborn read the proofs and wrote his obituary for the same number.

During the previous years, Cope was bitterly assailed by a coterie of government scientists in Washington, nearly all of whom are now dead. He could not get justice in Washington, nor his works printed, nor his pay from the government. I undertook to straighten things out for him at which he was greatly amused. "Why, little boy," he said, "you don't want to get in between. They will make dust of you so fine they can't even see it on their feet." "I'll show you," said I, "that the press rules in this country." Thereupon followed my fifty-two-column exposé running eight days in the *New York Herald*, of one of the worst rings that ever fastened on the government, smashing the ring completely. Cope's works were all printed soon thereafter and he received all his back pay. I have forgotten what Cope said and wrote to me about the matter, something pleasant I think.

In getting out of Cope his discoveries in such form as would permit them to be lifted into the limelight of the world's great news, involved much labor and patience. At night and at meals he wanted relaxation. In working hours he would stop to talk and explain at intervals and then order me to "shut up" and "not stir," while he wrote out the descriptions running in his head of the new found bones. When he got his view of a bone on paper, for use in some work, he would turn around and say, "Well, where are we at?" Then for from a few minutes up to two hours he would pitch into the news story of his particular discovery I was endeavoring to draw out of him. "I wouldn't waste my time on you," he would reiterate, "if your queries didn't help me round

RESTORATION of the GREAT MARINE LIZARD.

out my own view of things and offer suggestions for further examination." Then again: "Newspaper men have some value after all. They keep a man from getting as rusty as a bone he is working upon." He never had the news sense developed to the slightest extent, nor have I ever met a natural scientist who had a news conception of his own discoveries. Certain magazines of today get scientific men to write of their own discoveries, as "experts," resulting in as dull reading as the dreariest sentence of Herbert Spencer. If a conscientious reporter was employed to exploit their views, the public would get some kind of return for its money. Cope often spoke of this and was always surprised when I found in his letters to me or published scientific articles or papers or addresses, a subject for big headlines. I lived in New York and he in Philadelphia, and I rushed over to see him every time I recognized news value in his work. His man, who answered the doorbell at his double house on Pine street, where Cope was locked in, with orders to admit nobody, silently let me into the workshop, because once when he failed to do it, he got the scare of his life. On entering I said nothing, unless Cope did not sit down until his line of thought was on record.

"The first important thing in this work," Cope would say, "is to record first everything the mind is working out. Mind works its thought out once only and memory does not always repeat it correctly." Every human being must know how true that is. Cope had no secretary to take his

The father of vegetarians, the spoonbill dinosaur, *Hadrosaurus mirabilis,* restored as in life by Professor H. F. Osborn. The skeleton is 38 feet long.

scientific dictations in shorthand and typewrite them as is done today. Had he been so provided during his life, he would have vastly increased the precious record he has left us. All his voluminous work was done by hand, a slow method when an impatient, surging mind is behind the hand. I still retain some of Cope's unpublished views he confided to me. One of these is an imaginary thesis on what might be if ——. Something happened to cause me to ask him one day what extinct animals he thought would be found if the ice cap were lifted off the Arctic Circle. Before answering he wanted to know first why I thought any remains of extinct animals would be found there. I answered because so many had been found in the temperate zone deposited during or before the retreat of the glacial period—preglacial remains, so-called. "Good," he replied and thereupon dictated about 2,500 words on the extinct

The Bird Catching Dinosaur, *Ornitholestes,* in the act of seizing the extinct *Archæoptery.*

animals which might be found if the Arctic ice cap were lifted. This interesting document I still hold unpublished, because none are more skeptical than scientists themselves on problematical matters.

Cope, however, believed intensely that the remains of every animal he mentioned lies today under Arctic ice and that there too may lie the most excruciatingly desired evidence as to the migrations of primitive men and mammals, at present not even remotely proved by any discoveries whatsoever. Very recently Hrdlicka has positively rejected all skeletonic evidence whatsoever of the existence of remains of any diluvial man in America such as have been uncovered in Europe, but does not deny that such evidence may yet be found; and Fewkes has utterly discredited all evidence of the mythical island of Atlantis or any prehistoric island across the equatorial Atlantic, on which primitive men, mammals, or plants could have migrated here from the old world, a conclusion making Cope's Arctic speculation immensely important. Another one of Cope's pet specula-

The Long Limbed Dinosaur, sixty feet in length.
(Photograph of a painting by Charles R. Knight of a restoration, as in life, by Professor Henry F. Osborn in the American Museum.)

Creosaurus, Carnivorous Dinosaur, eating the tail vertebrae of the Brontosaur.
(Photograph of a painting by Charles R. Knight of a restoration, as in life, by Professor Henry F. Osborn in the American Museum.)

Model of Naosaurus.
Executed under the direction of Professor H. F. Osborn by Charles R. Knight.

tions is apparently lost to the world. One of my news stories put out through the *New York Herald,* comprised Cope's chain of nine prehistoric ancestors of man which he considered that his evidence proved, as against the chain of Haeckel and other contemporaries. One of Cope's links, exploited in the story was in the carnivorous line of reptiles, or saurians, the species of which he did not live to determine, but was more ambitious to decipher than any other mystery. Professor Osborn, as scientific executor of Cope, decided to sidetrack this speculation of Cope and it was permitted to receive scant attention in my *Century* article. Professor Osborn has since, and quite recently, entirely eliminated the saurian, or reptile link in the chain of extinct ancestors of man and mammal, and in a recent address, said there had been as yet no evidence discovered whatever to include them. I have, however, Cope's original, approved chain in which from his point of view the carnivorous line of saurians formed a most important link. As this article solely concerns the life of Cope and his work, and as the view mentioned was made by Cope in full health and vigor, supported by diagrams which he drew and a glossary of terms

The largest reptile skull ever found, that of a *Triceratops* from Montana. Measurements, 7½ feet long by 5½ feet wide. Now in the American Museum, New York.

which he prepared, all of which I have before me, I propose to state his exact position, whether later evidence supports it or not. I do so the more readily because it carries with it the very pith of Cope's life work. The approved statement in brief is as follows:

"The mystery of some of the evolution of the saurians has been cleared away. As to the order of ascent, we can now speak in general terms. With the discovery and study of more and completer skeletons, the missing data can be supplied. The geological sequence of saurians has become known. Their duration extended from the Carboniferous era of the Paleozoic through the entire Mesozoic realm. The original saurian was a Cotylosaur, discovered in the coal measures of Ohio. This ancestor, *Isodectes punctulatus* of Cope, was eight inches in length and differed not so much from the lizards found about the farm fences of to-

Leg bones of a gigantic Dinosaur in the American Museum.

day. It is astonishing how great and mighty a race of saurians sprang from this diminutive and insignificant ancestor! The Carboniferous era closed and *punctulatus* was blotted out. Then succeeded the Permian era, the last of the Paleozoic Age. Herein other Cotylosaurs appeared in numbers, first of moderate size. As the Permian grew older, lizard-like saurians continued to increase in species and in size. There appeared the larger Thermora, such as the Dimetrodons, some with forty-inch spines on their backs and the Otocoelidæ, the ancestors of the marine turtles, ranging from three to ten feet in length. Then the Paleozoic Age died out, and with it these types of saurians became extinct.

"The next age, the most extraordinary so far as animal life is concerned, the Mesozoic, was ushered in like a new world. In its first section, the Triassic, the saurians that had appeared with it assumed wide orders, functions, and greater proportions. These were Palaeoctonus, Aetosaurus, Testudinata, Dystrophaecus, Thecodontosaurus and Palaeohatteria, of which the Utah Triassic elephantine saurian, Dystrophaecus Viaemalæ was conspicuous. The Jurassic and Cretaceous formation of the Mesozoic were the most remarkable periods for types of animal life. In them saurians reached their time of glory. An examination of the Jurassic of Colorado shows that it was a lake bed which abounded in dinosaurs, magalosaurs and cetiosaurs of diverse species, which swarmed in vast numbers and grew to gigantic proportions. Some went in herds, finding food most plentiful, and conditions and climate most propitious. The forests and jungles abounded in saurians which walked on four legs. The Cretaceous Agathaumas of Marsh resembling somewhat in form the rhinocerous; and the Jurassic Stegosaur of Marsh partaking of the bulk of the elephant. Of the genus Agthaumas, with its powerful skull armature, the *silvestris* of Cope had a nose horn pointing forward and his *spherocerus* a nose horn pointing

straight upward. Of the genus *Stegosaurus*, the *ungulatus* of Marsh had a single dermal armor and the *latus* of Cope had a double dermal armor. The plains and fields swarmed with Saurians which ran or leaped on two hind legs and tail and whose fore limbs were not ambulatory. Those of the kangaroo type represented by the Laramie cretaceous *Laelaps incrassatus* (Cope) which preyed on the western *Hadrosaurus mirabilis* (Leidy); and the Fox Hills cretaceous *Laelaps acquilunguis* (Cope) of New Jersey which preyed on the Eastern *Hadrosaurus Foulkii*. The lakes were infested by saurians which waded but could not swim and other species which waded or swam indifferently. These types are represented only in the Jurassic. *Amphicoelias altus* (Cope), one of the tallest dinosaurs, waded but never swam. He walked on the bottom, sometimes browsing on overhanging tree tops; at other times seizing live prey beneath the surface; and again feeding on aquatic plants on the lake bed. Amphibious and omniverous, he ate anything edible within reach, a saurian in structure, and everything in habits. The great weight of his femurs and tail vertebræ, prevented him from swimming or attempting to walk on land and his extinction came when the water, which had held his bones together, disappeared and caused the collapse of his mighty structure, solid at the base and hollow as to neck and back. Of coexistence was the giant or giraffe-like amphibian, the *Carmarasaurus supremis* of Cope and the *Brontosaurus excelsus* of Marsh. Because of a longer femur the camarasaur had the advantage of the amphicoelias and could either swim or wade or progress on land. Standing like a tripod on hind legs and tail, this herbiverous monster could distend his bird-like beak to a height of from sixty to eighty feet and browse on the tops of the then existing palm trees. Because of hollow vertebrae anterior to the tail, and two large separated chambers, communicating with the cavity of the body by a foramin on either side, he could materially lighten his superstructure

with air and march along the lowlands with rapid strides. The ocean at this time teemed with serpent-like saurians which swam at great speed feeding like swans or sharks. Of these the Fox Hills Cretaceous Mosasaurs possessed eight technical characters of serpents, having fangless teeth, a numerous jointed vertebral column, cylindrical ribs, and powers of swimming in the ocean, and of devouring their prey whole. Being one of the most elongated of all animals, it is assumed as in *Mosasaurus Dekayi* (Mitchell) that they had webbed toes and paddle-like limbs. *Maximus* was the longest, having sixty feet of skeleton with the largest and most terrible head, followed in size by *princeps, Missoriensis,* and *orathrus.* Allied to these was *Nectoportheus* [*Tylosaurus*] *proriger* (Cope) ram nosed, with an obtuse beak prolonged beyond the teeth, with which he fought his enemies while swimming in the ocean with perhaps greater speed than any known species. In the Niobrara Cretaceous was the swan-necked Elasmosaur. The *Elasmosaurus Platyurus* of Cope had a powerful elongated tail for swimming. In habits it was rapacious, having dog-like teeth and beneath a Leavenworth skeleton, six species of fishes were found. It seized fishes while "standing on its head" after the manner of ducks and geese and swam with wonderful rapidity to escape its deadly foe, the Cimoliasaur. Incomplete as is our knowledge of *Cimoliasaurus Magnus* of Cope, we know that it was the most robust and powerful of the marine serpent-like saurians, short of neck and formidable of bulk, with massive round head, short and stout legs, and easily able to whip any of the saurians known which dared to come near and give battle. It could fight and win but was neither constituted for pursuit nor flight to an extent necessary at his period of existence. Had he lived in Jurassic times, together with the omnivorous and terrible *Amphicoelius altus,* which also was unable to run away or pursue, some great battles might have taken place.

"With the Mesozoic realm, ended the careers of sau-

rians. It is astonishing to note that the saurians reverted to almost their primitive form. The ancestral cotylosaur of the Paleozoic carboniferous is resembled in size and functions by the successors of the saurians in the Cenozoic realm, the Lacertilla somewhat similar to the small lizards found today. If we arrange these forms we must place the carnivorous saurians as follows: The ancestral Cotylosaur in the Permian, its successor Palaeoctonus in the Triassic, the Magalosaurs in the Jurassic, ending with Laelaps in the Cretaceous. The second line of ascent comprises the Camarasaur in the Jurassic alone, for which neither ancestor nor progeny has been discovered. In the third line we have the Stegosaur types beginning with Dystrophaecus in the Triassic, followed by Stegosaurus in the Jurassic and ending with Agathaumas in the Cretaceous. The fourth or herbivorous line begins with Thecodontosaurus in the Triassic, followed by Iguanodon in the Jurassic and ending with Hadrosaurus in the Cretaceous. It will be seen that only the carnivorous line runs straight from Cotylosaur in the Paleozoic carboniferous to Laelaps in the Mesozoic Cretaceous giving origin to mammalia and man.

"Several views have been advanced as to the probable cause of the extinction of the saurians. Morris thinks that their eggs were eaten or destroyed by a race of mammals which Cope suggested may have been the multi-tuberculate Prototheria, allies of the existing Australian duck bill, but armed with sharp lancet-like teeth in the front jaws. As a rule, however, it may be assumed that the saurians finally acquired a greater bulk than the soil would bear and that they required more food than Nature could produce and starved."

Certain it is that the survival of the saurians would not have benefited man while their extinction has been the cause of much of the immortal, imperishable fame of Professor Edward D. Cope and several contemporaries. And while there are those who may not agree with Cope that

the carnivorous saurians gave origin to the mammalia and man, we immeasurably feel the loss to the world that death has made it impossible for him to continue his studies and determine the particular species of saurian which was entitled to the honor to be classed as one of the known ancestors. It is logic, however, to assume that if one carnivorous saurian was an ancestor, all the line were ancestors. Certain it is that all of Cope's nine ancestors, from amphioxus to man, were each and all carnivorous and one would as soon have some reptiles for ancestors as some apes.

"Ancestor," by the way, merely means the highest type of animal in the preceding geological age. "Evolution" amounts to that and little else. Man could not have existed in any of the geological ages of his "ancestors," as there were not conditions of soil and atmosphere to support him. He will have no successor, because divine authority assures him he was created in the divine image.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

AMONG the foremost leaders in American church life during the latter half of the nineteenth century was Matthew Simpson, born in 1811 in Ohio, in early life a school teacher, a student and for a time a practitioner as a physician, a professor of natural science in Allegheny College, president for a time of what is now DePauw University, then for nine years editor of the *Western Christian Advocate,* and in 1852 elected as a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal church. He died in 1884.

Bishop Simpson was a man of remarkable physical, intellectual, and spiritual power; an exceptionally great preacher, endowed with that mysterious magnetic energy so difficult to define, and impossible by any known process of personal training to acquire. As an orator he swayed his audiences at will, holding their attention, stirring their emotions, convincing their judgments, compelling their approval and all this with the manifest self-forgetting fervor born of personal earnestness and genuine enthusiasm. He seemed while in the pulpit entirely to forget his immediate surroundings and to be carried away by the consciousness of a great opportunity to set forth the Christ whose messenger and representative he felt himself to be. There was a certain majesty about him, and he possessed a magnetic power that seemed to be the medium of a higher force—a divine Spirit of whose presence he was conscious, and by whose love and wisdom he was controlled. I think I never listened to a messenger of God in the pulpit who so profoundly impressed me as being then and there under the direct inspiration of God.

Bishop Simpson was a master of the art of illustration.

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*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

But one never thought of or inquired for the "book of illustrations" from which he had taken his material. Every thing was evidently new-born and a present fruit of genius and inspiration. While looking into his illuminated face as he preached one felt that he was in the presence of a man of God, who was doing his work not to gain applause nor to build up a church but to win his hearers to a nobler and a purer life. His call from God was a flame of fire within him. A little girl once listening to a great preacher in the Puritan times said to her mother: "I thought it was God who was talking." And so it was with Bishop Simpson. He was as a voice of God to men.

The great bishop's outlook was catholic, his horizon all-embracing. He appreciated all the denominations. He coöperated with all.

He exhibited a charming humility of spirit. He was gentle and lovable; both fatherly and fraternal; his burning eloquence contributed to the success of the Nation's salvation in the days of '61 and '64, and Mr. Lincoln received help and hope from Simpson's hand and heart and tongue.

As we recall a life like his our faith in the life of the Spirit increases. God does dwell in man. Created to be an image of God, to be possessed and dominated by His own Holy Spirit, loving what God loves, choosing what the will of God approves, following what the law of God commands —a human life may make a revelation to men of the beauty of holiness. Such was the career of Matthew Simpson. He would himself refuse to be assigned to such a lofty place, but those who knew him best recognize the fitness of this tribute.

Nothing is worth while in human life if this basal faith, this divine possession and guidance be lacking.

As we recall this illustrious career let us remember that the distinction he acquired was as nothing to the divine spirit he possessed, the humble faith that controlled him and the consistent example he set forth before men. And let

our Vesper prayer ascend to Heaven: Clothe us, O Lord, with the same blessed Spirit that Thy servant, our brother, received from Thy gracious hand. And this grace we ask in the name of Jesus Christ, his Savior and ours. Amen.

Julia Ward Howe

THE autobiography of so long and eventful a life as that of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe is a human chronicle of more than ordinary interest. Her girlhood in New York, her married life in Boston, her visits to Europe were all so related to great events and movements of the century just closed that her "Reminiscences" call up living pictures of a past which is already fading from the memory of those who had a share in it.

Mrs. Howe was born in 1819. Her father, Samuel Ward, was a banker, a man of strong character and independent convictions, somewhat austere but loved and honored. His influence in the commercial world is evidenced by the fact that in Jackson's administration when financial stress led a number of states to repudiate their debts, and New York State wavered with regard to its own obligations, Mr. Ward's personal influence and the financial backing of his banking house, tided his state over the crisis. He died when his daughter Julia was twenty, but those twenty years of her girlhood helped in no small degree to prepare her for what the years were to bring. Her father's antipathy to the theater and to the use of tobacco, wine, etc., gave to the household atmosphere a somewhat puritan quality in spite of which as the years went on the young daughters shared in some measure in the fashionable life of old New York. One of her brothers married into the Astor family and a sister became the wife of Thomas Crawford, the sculptor. Mrs. Howe's literary and musical attainments, her own

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe.

personal charm and the opportunities offered by her father's social position brought her into pleasant and familiar relations with the most cultivated men and women of the country. A favorite older brother returning from a stay in Germany, stimulated her already keen interest in literature and music and widened the circle of her friendships.

In 1843 she married Dr. S. G. Howe, the famous Boston philanthropist, whose work in behalf of the blind had made him known in both Europe and America. Their wedding journey to Europe was an eventful one. In London there were social engagements at which they met the Carlyles, Sydney Smith, Lord Houghton, and other distinguished people, and these experiences alternated with visits to Newgate prison, to the Bridewell where men were still being punished by means of the treadmill, and to other institutions deeply interesting to a man of Dr. Howe's temperament and to Horace Mann who was one of their traveling companions. A memorable experience was their visit to the Nightingale home, where the young daughter Florence improved the opportunity to consult with Dr. Howe about the propriety of studying nursing and devoting her life to that profession. The culminating point of their journey was Rome, then a medieval city without indication of the coming struggle for freedom.

The return to America brought the young bride into a new world. Boston of the forties and fifties was stirring with ideas and experiments. The transcendental movement was in full tide, Emerson just "breaking ground," George Ripley starting his Brook Farm scheme, and Margaret Fuller holding her memorable "conversations." Mrs. Howe's life of Margaret Fuller, written in 1883, attests the high estimate which she placed upon the character of this remarkable woman. "I had known," Mrs. Ward writes, "the Boston of the Forty if New York may be called the city of the Four Hundred. I was now to make the acquaintance of the Boston of the teachers, of the reformers, of the

cranks, and also—of the apostles." After her experience of the years she now looks upon the transcendentalists and the abolitionists as both representing the new liberal movement of the time. "In the transcendentalists the enthusiasm of emancipated thought was paramount, while the abolitionists followed the vision of emancipated humanity."

Some strong antipathies had to be met and overcome in these early years of her Boston life. She felt repelled by the abolitionists and especially by William Lloyd Garrison "whom I had never seen but of whose malignity of disposition I entertained not the smallest doubt." Meeting him one Sunday evening at Theodore Parker's she found him "gentle and unassuming in manner with a pleasant voice, a benevolent countenance and a sort of glory of sincerity in his ways and words. I could only wonder at the falsehoods I had heard and believed concerning him."

To her husband's great surprise when hymns were sung according to the Sunday evening custom at the Parker's, he saw Mrs. Howe and Mr. Garrison sharing the same hymn book. "From this time forth," she says, "I learned to respect and honor him, though as yet little foreseeing how glad I should be one day to work with and under him." In the case of Wendell Phillips she passed through much the same experience, though she is inclined to think that the fact that Phillips had bought her book of poems, saying, "She doesn't like me, but I like her poetry," may have been partly responsible for her softened attitude!

These were the days also of uprisings in Europe and the Howes were again in Italy in the early fifties. It was during the reaction following the revolutions of '48. To Dr. Howe and other enthusiasts "the millennium of universal peace and good will seemed near at hand." But Mrs. Howe comments: "The fact remained that the city of God must be built by patient day's work."

Upon her return to America, though occupied with the cares of a family of young children, she found leisure to

share the editorial labors of her husband on *The Commonwealth*, an anti-slavery journal designed to educate the Northern public conscience against slavery—a conscience "lulled by financial prosperity." Of the way in which her broad and kindly nature adjusted itself to the sharp prejudices of the time, she gives us a hint in her "Reminiscences:" "I did not then or at any time make any wilful breach with the society to which I was naturally related. It did, however, much annoy me to hear those spoken of with contempt and invective who I was persuaded were only far in advance of the conscience of the time." "Passion Flowers," a little volume of poems, published in 1854, gave expression to her sense of the just cause of the Italian and Hungarian patriots and of the wrongs and sufferings of the slaves.

To these eventful years belong her attempts at dramatic writing. Her first play, "The World's Own," had been acted at Wallack's Theater in New York with Mr. Sothern, afterward famous as Lord Dundreary, in a leading part. Edwin Booth was just at the beginning of his career and when Dr. and Mrs. Howe saw him for the first time they at once felt the touch of genius in his work. "This is the real thing," they exclaimed. Later when Booth's manager proposed that Mrs. Howe should write a play and Booth warmly seconded the request she entered upon the work with great enthusiasm: "I could only think," she said, "of representing him as Hippolytus, a beautiful youth of heroic type, enamored of a high ideal. This was the part which I desired to create for him." At her cozy summer home at Lawton Valley near Newport she gave herself up to the delight of creative writing. But this venture came to an untimely end. The play was finished and Booth and Charlotte Cushman were to act the leading parts, when the caprice of the manager caused the abandonment of the scheme and Mrs. Howe resolved to attempt nothing more for the stage.

The publication of her volume on Cuba after a visit of some length to that island led the New York *Tribune* to ask for letters from her on the social doings of Newport. To this she acceded, but the letters while treating social life in Newport and Boston in some measure, dealt more especially with the great events of the time. "To me," she writes, "the experience was valuable in that I found myself brought nearer in sympathy to the general public and helped to a better understanding of its needs and demands."

Her story of the writing of the "Battle Hymn of the Republic" has been told many times. It was composed and written in Washington in the gray dawn of morning. The day before had been one of excitement. Mrs. Howe was returning with friends from watching some manoeuvers of the troops, when a movement of the enemy called for immediate action and the whole program was upset. The Howes' carriage worked its way back to Washington through masses of troops and its occupants sang war songs to the great appreciation of the soldiers. Some one suggested that better words ought to be available for the tune of "John Brown's Body." The next morning the "Battle Hymn" was written.

The chronicle of Mrs. Howe's later life is a record of fruitful activities. She was one of the founders of the New England Woman's Club, in the late sixties, which has been a model for other clubs for nearly half a century. Just after the war she organized the famous Saturday Morning Club among the young women of Boston. Many of the foremost young men of the city had fallen in the war. A very youthful and immature set were perforce called upon to take their places and Mrs. Howe saw the need of something to help keep up the tone of social intercourse among these young people.

As a preacher in Unitarian pulpits, a prominent advocate of woman's suffrage, a worker in the cause of prison reform and of universal peace, Mrs. Howe has been identi-

fied with many phases of social progress. But these activities have never found her too busy to enter into all the varied experiences of a large family circle: at one time, giving friendly criticism to a forthcoming novel of her grandson, F. Marion Crawford; again yielding to the urgent demands of the younger set that she play an Irish jig for them to dance to; then, perchance in quieter moments studying Plato or Sophocles in the original for her own mental refreshment. Mrs. Howe is still a power at eighty-nine because her vitality and her large sympathies have kept her close to the currents of human life.

A Recent Development in American Music.

By Henry Ingraham

AMERICAN music lovers, thrilled by Dvorak's great composition, the "New World Symphony," have wondered sadly why it remained for a foreigner to visit us and express our national life in worthy music: to find in "Swing Low Sweet Chariot" a theme full of possibilities, and to give it a rhythm which transforms it from a mere negro melody into world music, intelligible to all. Why was there no American composer to so interpret and orchestrate our folk-music?

To say that Dvorak was a genius rare in all times and countries is in part to evade the question. Other contemporary composers there are: Strauss, Elgar, and Saint Saens, who, if not the equal of Dvorak, are nevertheless among the world's greatest musicians; and with these America has no composers who can at all compare. The fact is the more peculiar in that American artists in all other branches,—literature, sculpture, and above all in painting, rank well with their European brothers. In creative music alone is American art almost a negligible quantity, and this too, de-

spite that fact that Americans are loyal supporters of great orchestras, singers, and pianists, and pay liberally to hear them perform.

With too many Americans it is doubtless true that the love of music is much of an affectation, an affectation sanctioned by society and manifesting itself chiefly by an interest in the performer rather than in the masterpiece performed. The almost universal love of music characteristic of the Germans and the Italians is far beyond us as a people. Music is truly appreciated by only a limited class, and music, of all the arts, most requires a large and almost national audience to properly foster and encourage its growth.

Our lack of a distinctively national school of music is at first thought the more surprising when it is remembered that American concert singers and, in some instances, opera singers, are of the first rank; also that American instrumentalists have in some cases won high distinction. But the musical ability thus displayed is of an interpretative rather than of a creative sort. In musical composition no corresponding talent has until very recently, been generally displayed. This is not to say that America has not produced some composers of ability—such as Dudley Buck, Horatio Parker, and chief of all Edward MacDowell. Yet these names, commanding as they are, do not suffice to base a reasonable claim to a national school of music; and but one of these composers, MacDowell, has displayed genius worthy of international recognition.

Yet despite these unwelcome admissions there are signs of distinct promise in the present musical situation. The public support accorded great orchestras such as the Boston Symphony Orchestra and the Theodore Thomas Orchestra of Chicago promises well for the musical taste of the next generation. The large influx of musical foreigners, notably German and Italian, also indicates that the cosmopolitan American of the future will have a music loving strain in his blood. Best indication of all is the

work of a group of young composers identified with the Wa-Wan Society formed a few years ago at Newton Center, Massachusetts. The composers of this group are, we may hope, in view of their present accomplishment, laying the foundation for a school of national music—American music as distinguished from European music.

"The Wa-Wan Society of America for American Composition" began its publications, which are printed by the Wa-Wan Press in Newton Center, Massachusetts, in 1902. These publications both of vocal and instrumental music have appeared quarterly throughout the five years of the society's existence and include much work of decided interest and talent, some of it relating to American themes, both Indian and negro, and other of it based on American poems, such, for example, as the songs "Israfel" and "Eldorado" of Poe, with a musical setting composed by Edgar Stillman Kelley.

However, the publication of music based on American themes, though the more obvious activity of the Wa-Wan Society, is not its chief aim. The originators of the "movement," if it may be so termed, have endeavored to do a more difficult thing: to create a sympathetic audience among American music lovers for the work of American composers. Mr. Arthur Farwell, the President, has thus expressed the purpose of the society:

"While special 'colors' of American music are developing, due to American psychology, to Indian themes, negro themes, etc., the aim is to bring about the best possible conditions of life and work for all who are creating musically in America. The definite character of American music will take care of itself. The welfare of the composer is the important thing and the conditions obtaining in our musical life."

The welfare of the composer involves two things: the publication of his work and the creation of a sympathetic audience. The society therefore not only publishes in attractive form the original creations of American composers, many of which might, otherwise, have difficulty in finding

a place in the commercial market, but it seeks to establish throughout the country, centers of appreciative music lovers who will devote time each year to the study and performance of American musical compositions. Some such centers have been successfully established and at each a yearly concert has been given presenting the creations of American composers. In addition the members of the centers receive from the central society the quarterly publications, which include not only the newly published songs and instrumental selections, but also the illuminating introductions written by Mr. Farwell, introductions which offer some analysis of the compositions presented and which at times give, in addition, critical discussion of the possibilities and aims of American music. From one of these prefaces is taken the following analysis of the essentials of American music, the music which is already being written and which in larger measure must be written in the future:

"[As] we take what we want from the world's store of spiritual or material goods, [so in music] we will be independent and not reject what is found elsewhere if it seems good, and certainly in any event not surrendering to it our liberty of thought and action. . . . Independence encourages daring. The American is freer than another to experiment. We must cast out the passion for Europe with the passion for America. . . . We must expect artistic types and styles of the utmost diversity, each of which may exhibit an independence which no other land than America could attain. We must rid ourselves completely of the idea that American music is to be recognized by some one style, some one harmonious color, one form, or one melodic type. 'Many in one' is the motto for our music, as for our union. We are to look for and accept diversity, and in the diverse offerings of our composers we are to look for individuality, personality, independence. We need not fear the best in our too Teutonic inheritance; it is fundamental, unescapable, and needful to us. But the union of these great elements which we now have the opportunity to unite, and which have never before in the world's history been united, shall never result in a direct imitation of definite styles and forms developed by other epochs and lands. Let the American composer stop composing for a space and think. Let him take deeply to heart

the inward meanings and impulses of the great art epochs from Greece to the present time. Let him observe technical methods, noting those which are out-worn. Then let him forget these things. Let him look closely about him, and with truth and loving care express the humanity of which he is an integral part, and whose life currents, whose joys and pains, hopes and fears, and aspirations he feels within himself. Only when the American composer conceives a passion for the life which is about him, will his music begin to live, and only then will it become American and universal."

This is an inspiring ideal of what American music should become, even though its attainment be in all probability, remote. Yet the work already accomplished is considerable, particularly in the realm of folk music. Indian and negro melodies have been taken down accurately and made the basis for songs and piano suites. Mr. Farwell, the President, has done much of this work, his compositions including the following for piano: "Ichibuzzhi" and "The Domain of Hurakan," based on legends and themes of the Omahas and Pawnees; "Wa-Wan Choral," based upon the "Wa-Wan" or intertribal peace ceremony of the Omahas; "Navajo War Dance;" "Prairie Minature" (on cowboy themes); "Plantation Melody" (a negro "song without words"). The songs include equally as interesting folk material. Among them are negro "spirituals:" "De Rocks a' Renderin'," and "Moanin' Dove;" Spanish-California Folk-songs: "The Hours of Grief," "The Black Face;" "Bird Dance Song" (from Cahuilla tribe); and Cowboy Folk-song, "The Lone Prairee." The interesting character of these compositions in which the music admirably supplements and enforces the words may be slightly indicated by the words of the cowboy song, "The Lone Prairee:"

"O, bury me not on the lone prairee
Where the wild coyote will howl o'er me,
In a narrow grave just 6 by 3,
O, bury me not on the lone prairee.

"And they buried him there on the lone prairee
Where the coyote howls and the wind goes free,
In his narrow grave just 6 by 3,
And they buried there on the lone prairee."

This is a song such as a cowboy alone on the wide prairie might sing as he watched his cattle; a song with an indescribably cheerful melancholy about it; a grimly humorous treatment of a grave subject. The music though bizarre is fully in harmony with the words, and the combination is extraordinary.

Other American composers besides Mr. Farwell are writing music on Indian themes for the Wa-Wan Press, as notably, Harvey Worthington Loomis and Carlos Troyer. Yet others, not confining themselves to American folk-music, have written songs and instrumental pieces of a miscellaneous nature, in many cases making use of verse by the best American poets. A number of these composers, as notably John Beach, Arthur Reginald Little, Henry F. Gilbert and Edgar Stillman Kelley are among the American composers whose work is represented with increasing frequency upon the programs of the best concert singers. These may or may not be the forerunners of the American school of music which will, we hope, in time rank with that of Germany or France or England. But their work and that of many others is certainly interesting and excellently done, and constitutes a distinctly hopeful indication in the musical outlook.

Edmund Clarence Stedman

Edmund Clarence Stedman who died recently at the age of seventy-five, was a poet and critic of distinction as well as a successful business man. His career began as a journalist but he early entered Wall Street as a broker. Business did not, however, interfere with his literary activities and he has left a considerable amount of excellent verse and essays. Moreover, he conferred a distinct service to American literature by his compilation of "An American Anthology," a volume which gathers up much minor poetry well worth preserving, in addition to the acknowledged masterpieces of America's leading poets.

The poem printed herewith, "Pan in Wall Street," is one included by the author in his Anthology. It serves as a symbol of Mr. Stedman's dual activities as financier and poet.

PAN IN WALL STREET.

Just where the Treasury's marble front
Looks over Wall Street's mingled nations;
Where Jews and Gentiles most are wont
To throng for trade and last quotations;
Where, hour by hour, the rates of gold
Outrival, in the ears of people,
The quarter-chimes, serenely tolled
From Trinity's undaunted steeple,—

Even there I heard a strange, wild strain
Sound high above the modern clamor,
Above the cries of greed and gain,
The curbstone war, the auction's hammer;
And swift, on Music's misty ways,
It led, from all this strife for millions,
To ancient, sweet-do-nothing days
Among the kirtle-robed Sicilians.

And as it stilled the multitude,
And yet more joyous rose, and shriller,
I saw the minstrel, where he stood
At ease against a Doric pillar:
One hand a droning organ played,
The other held a Pan's pipe (fashioned
Like those of old) to lips that made
The reeds give out that strain impassioned.

'Twas Pan himself had wandered here
A-strolling through this sordid city,
And piping to the civic ear
The prelude of some pastoral ditty!
The demigod had crossed the seas,—
From haunts of shepherd, nymph, and satyr,
And Syracusan times,—to these
Far shores and twenty centuries later.

A ragged cap was on his head;
But—hidden thus—there was no doubting
That, all with crispy locks o'erspread,
His gnarlèd horns were somewhat sprouting;
His club-feet, cased in rusty shoes,
Were crossed, as on some frieze you see them,
And trousers, patched of divers hues,
Concealed his crooked shanks beneath them.

He filled the quivering reeds with sound,
And o'er his mouth their changes shifted,
And with his goat's-eyes looked around
Wher'er the passing current drifted;
And soon, as on Trinacrian hills
The nymphs and herdsmen ran to hear him,
Even now the tradesmen from their tills,
With clerks and porters, crowded near him.

The bulls and bears together drew
From Jauncey Court and New Street Alley,
As erst, if pastorals be true,
Came beasts from every wooded valley;
The random passers stayed to list,—
A boxer Ægon, rough and merry,
A Broadway Daphnis, on his tryst
With Nais at the Brooklyn Ferry.

A one-eyed Cyclops halted long
In tattered cloak of army pattern,
And Galatea joined the throng,—
A blowsy, apple-vending slattern;
While old Silenus staggered out
From some new-fangled lunch-house handy,
And bade the piper, with a shout,
To strike up Yankee Doodle Dandy!

A newsboy and a peanut-girl
Like little Fauns began to caper;
His hair was all in tangled curl,
Her tawny legs were bare and taper;
And still the gathering larger grew,
And gave its pence and crowded nigher,
While aye the shepherd-minstrel blew
His pipe, and struck the gamut higher.

O heart of Nature, beating still
With throbs her vernal passion taught her,—
Even here, as on the vine-clad hill,
Or by the Arethusan water!
New forms may fold the speech, new lands
Arise within these ocean portals,
But music waves eternal wands,—
Enchantress of the souls of mortals!

So thought I,—but among us trod
A man in blue, with legal baton,
And scoffed the vagrant demigod,
And pushed him from the step I sat on.
Doubting I mused upon the cry,
"Great Pan is dead!"—and all the people
Went on their ways:—and clear and high
The quarter sounded from the steeple.

Cooper as a Critic of His Countrymen

Chautauqua students who have followed Mr. John Graham Brooks' entertaining series of articles upon foreign critics of America will be interested to observe some criticisms passed by James Fenimore Cooper, our first great novelist, upon certain blatant American boastings. Cooper was not always popular with his countrymen for he was a severe critic of our national vices and his comments frequently aroused indignation. The following extracts are from a little known novel, "Homeward Bound," in which one of the characters, an American, Mr. Steadfast Dodge, who embodies some of our least pleasing peculiarities, is held up to ridicule:

Mr. Dodge, whose Christian name, thanks to a pious ancestry, was Steadfast, partook of the qualities that his two appellations not inaptly expressed. There was a singular profession of steadiness of purpose, and of high principle about him, all of which van-

ished in Dodge at the close. A great stickler for the rights of the people, he never considered that this people was composed of many integral parts, but he viewed all things as gravitating towards the great aggregation. Majorities were his hobbies, and though singularly timid as an individual, or when in the minority, put him on the strongest side and he was ready to face the devil. In short, Mr. Dodge was a people's man, because his strongest desire, his "ambition and his pride" as he often expressed it, was to be a man of the people. In his particular neighborhood, at home, sentiment ran in veins, like gold in the mines, or in streaks of public opinion; and though there might be three or four of these public sentiments, so long as each had its party, no one was afraid to avow it; but as for maintaining a notion that was not thus upheld, there was a savor of aristocracy about it that would damn even a mathematical proposition, though regularly solved and proved. So much and so long had Mr. Dodge respired a moral atmosphere of this community-character, and gregarious propensity, that he had, in many things, lost all sense of his individuality; as much so, in fact, as if he breathed with a pair of county lungs, ate with a common mouth, drank from the town-pump, and slept in the open air.

The accidents of life could scarcely form extremes of character more remote than that of Steadfast Dodge and that of John Truck. The first never did anything beyond acts of the most ordinary kind, without first weighing its probable effect in the neighborhood; its popularity or unpopularity; how it might tally with the different public opinions that were whiffling through the county; in what manner it would influence the next election, and whether it would be likely to elevate him or depress him in the public mind. No Asiatic slave stood more in terror of a vindictive master than Mr. Dodge stood in fear and trembling before the reproof, comments, censures, frowns, cavillings, and remarks of every man in his county, who happened to belong to the political party that just at that moment was in power. As to the minority, he was as brave as a lion, could snap his fingers at them, and was foremost in deriding and scoffing at all they said and did. This, however, was in connection with politics only; for, the instant party-drill ceased to be of value, Steadfast's valor oozed out of his composition, and in all other things he dutifully consulted every public opinion of the neighborhood. This estimable man had his weak points as well as another, and what is more, he was quite sensible of them, as was proved by a most jealous watchfulness of his besetting sins, in the way of exposure if not of indulgence. In a word, Steadfast Dodge was a man that wished to meddle with and control all things without possessing precisely the spirit that was necessary to leave him master of himself; he had a rabid desire for the good opinion of everything human, without always taking the means necessary to preserve his own; was a stout declaimer for the rights of the community, while forgetting that the community itself is but a means set up for the accomplishment of a given end; and felt an inward and profound respect for everything that was beyond his reach which manifested itself, not in manly efforts to attain the forbidden fruit, but rather in a spirit of opposition and detraction, that

only betrayed, through its jealousy, the existence of the feeling, which jealousy, however, he affected to conceal under an intense regard for popular rights, since he was apt to aver it was quite intolerable that any man should possess anything, even to qualities, in which his neighbors might not properly participate. All these, moreover, and many similar traits, Mr. Dodge encouraged in the spirit of liberty.

* * * * * * * * * * * * *

"Sir George is a gentleman of great accomplishments, Miss Effingham, I assure you; a man of unqualified merit. We have the same state-room, for I like company, and prefer chatting a little in my berth, to being always asleep. He is a baronet, I suppose you know,—not that I care anything for titles, all men being equal in truth, though—though—"

"Unequal in reality, sir, you probably meant to add," observed John Effingham, who was lolling on Eve's workstand, his eagle-shaped face fairly curling with the contempt he felt, and which he hardly cared to conceal.

"Surely not, sir!" exclaimed the terrified Steadfast, looking furtively about, lest some active enemy might be at hand to quote this unhappy remark to his prejudice. "Surely not! men are every way equal, and no one can pretend to be better than another. No no,—it is nothing to me that Sir George is a baronet; though one would prefer having a gentleman in the same state-room to having a coarse fellow. Sir George thinks, sir, that the ship is running into great danger by steering for the land in so dark a night, and in such 'dirty' weather. He has many out-of-the-way expressions Sir George, I must admit, for one of his rank; he calls the weather 'dirty' and the proceedings 'uncomfortable;' modes of expression, gentlemen, to which I give an unqualified disapprobation."

"Probably Sir George would attach more importance to a qualified disapprobation," retorted John Effingham.

"Quite likely," returned Mr. Dodge innocently, though the two other visitors, Eve, and Mademoiselle Viefville, permitted slight muscular movements about the lips to be seen: "Sir George is quite an original in his way. We have few originals in our part of the country, you know, Mr. John Effingham; for to say the truth, it is rather unpopular to differ from the neighborhood, in this or any other respect. Yes, sir, the people will rule, and ought to rule. Still, I think Sir George may get along well enough as a stranger, for it is not quite as unpopular in a stranger to be original as in a native. I think you will agree with me, sir, in believing it excessively presuming in an American to pretend to be different from his fellow citizens?"

"No one, sir, could entertain such presumption, I am persuaded, in your case."

"No, sir, I do not speak from personal motives; but on the great general principles, that are to be maintained for the good of mankind. I do not know that any man has a right to be peculiar in a free country. It is aristocratic, and has an air of thinking one man is better than another. I am sure Mr. Effingham cannot approve of it."

"Perhaps not. Freedom has many arbitrary laws that it will not do to violate."

"Certainly, sir, or where would be its supremacy? If the people cannot control and look down peculiarity, or anything they dislike, one might as well live in a despotism at once."

"As I have resided much abroad, of late years, Mr. Dodge," inquired Eve, who was fearful her kinsman would give some cut that would prove to be past bearing, as she saw his eye was menacing, and who felt a disposition to be amused at the other's philosophy, that overcame the attraction of repulsion she had at first experienced towards him, "will you favor me with some of those great principles of liberty of which I hear so much, but which, I fear, have been overlooked by my European instructors?"

Mademoiselle Viefville looked grave; Messrs. Sharp and Blunt delighted; Mr. Dodge himself mystified.

"I should feel myself little able to instruct Miss Effingham on such a subject," the latter modestly replied, "as no doubt she has seen too much misery in the nations she has visited, not to appreciate justly all the advantages of that happy country which has the honor of claiming her for one of its fair daughters."

Eve was terrified at her own temerity, for she was far from anticipating so high a flight of eloquence in return for her own simple request, but it was too late to retreat.

"None of the many illustrious and godlike men that our own beloved land has produced can pretend to more zeal in its behalf than myself, but I fear my abilities to do it justice will fall short of the subject," he continued. "Liberty, as you know, Miss Effingham, as you well know, gentlemen, is a boon that merits our unqualified gratitude, and which calls for our daily and hourly thanks to the gallant spirits who, in the days that tried men's souls, were foremost in the tented field, and in the councils of the nation."

John Effingham turned a glance at Eve that seemed to tell her how unequal she was to the task she had undertaken, and which promised a rescue with her consent; a condition that the young lady most gladly complied with in the same silent but expressive manner.

"Of all this my young kinswoman is properly sensible, Mr. Dodge," he said by way of diversion; "but she, and I confess, myself, have some little perplexity on the subject of what this liberty is, about which so much has been said and written in our time. Permit me to inquire, if you understand by it a perfect independence of thought, action, and rights?"

"Equal laws, equal rights, equality in all respects, and pure, abstract, unqualified liberty, beyond all question, sir."

"What, a power in the strong man to beat the little man, and to take away his dinner?"

"By no means, sir; Heaven forbid that I should maintain any such doctrine! It means entire liberty: no kings, no aristocrats, no exclusive privileges; but one man as good as another!"

"Do you understand, then, that one man is as good as another, under our system, Mr. Dodge?"

"Unqualifiedly so, sir; I am amused that such a question

should be put by a gentleman of your information, in an age like this!"

"If one man is as good as another," said Mr. Blunt, who perceived that John Effingham was biting his lips, a sign that something more biting would follow, "will you do me the favor to inform me, why the country puts itself to the trouble and expense of the annual elections?"

"Elections, sir! In what manner could free institutions flourish or be maintained, without constantly appealing to the people, the only true source of power?"

"To this I make no objections, Mr. Dodge," returned the young man smiling; "but why an election? If one man is as good as another, a lottery would be cheaper, easier, and sooner settled. Why an election, or even a lottery at all? Why not choose the President as the Persians choose their king, by the neighing of a horse?"

"This would indeed be an extraordinary mode of proceeding for an intelligent and virtuous people, Mr. Blunt; and I must take the liberty of saying that I suspect you of pleasantry. If you wish an answer, I will say at once, by such a process we might get a knave, or a fool, or a traitor."

"How, Mr. Dodge! I did not expect this character of the country from you! Are the Americans, then, all fools, or knaves, or traitors?"

"Mr. Dodge does not mean that one man is as good as another in that particular sense," Mr. Effingham kindly interposed, in his quality of host; "his views are less general, I fancy, than his words would give us, at first, reason to suppose."

"Very true, Mr. Effingham, very true, sir; one man is not as good as another in that particular sense, or in the sense of elections, but in all other senses. Yes, sir," turning towards Mr. Blunt again, as one renews the attack on an antagonist, who has given a fall, after taking breath; "in all other senses one man is unqualifiedly as good as another."

"The slave—as the freeman?"

"The slaves are exceptions, sir. But in the free States, except in the case of elections, one man is as good as another in all things. That is our meaning, and any other principle would be unqualifiedly unpopular."

Clara Barton

MISS CLARA BARTON, founder and organizer of the "National Red Cross" in the United States, was president of that society from 1881 to 1904. Miss Barton's interest in the Red Cross activities was born of her experiences in the Civil War in which she did relief work upon the battle fields and carried on an organized search for missing men. For this latter work Congress voted her

Clara Barton, Commander-in-Chief of the American National Red Cross Society.

$15,000. At the conclusion of the war Miss Barton laid out the grounds for the National Cemetery at Andersonville. She became associated with the International Red Cross of Geneva and did work throughout the entire Franco-Prussian War, later distributing relief in the impoverished cities of Northern France. Miss Barton secured an adoption of the Treaty of Geneva in 1882 and became the first president of the American Red Cross. The government appreciating her activities in this work appointed her as a representative of the United States in all International Red Cross conferences as a result of which Miss Barton went to Geneva in 1884, to Carlsruhe in 1887, to Rome in 1892, Vienna in 1897, and St. Petersburg in 1903.

The excellent work done by the American Red Cross in the Spanish-American War was largely due to the foresight and care of Miss Barton. She had foreseen the impending conflict and had organized the forces of the Red Cross to meet the demands which would be placed upon it. Even before hostilities broke out the society had been carrying on relief work among the Cubans, and shortly afterwards, when hostilities commenced, the Red Cross workers were already at home in this field. During the war the Red Cross raised between three and four million dollars for hospital relief, furnished a hospital flag ship which was attached to the American fleet off Cuba, established field hospitals, and in every possible way aided the overburdened hospital forces of the army and navy.

Miss Barton's work has not been alone confined to Red Cross activities in time of war. She it is who inaugurated the American amendment of the Red Cross which enables that organization to provide for calamities of peace. Miss Barton distributed relief at the Johnstown Flood, the Russian Famine of 1893, the Armenian Massacre of 1896, and in Galveston, Texas, at the time of the great flood.

Miss Barton is the author of "History of the Red Cross," "America's Relief Expedition to Asia Minor," etc.

Greeting to C. L. S. C. Readers from President Welch of Ohio Wesleyan University

No man genuinely interested in the cause of education can be indifferent to the great work being accomplished outside the schools and colleges, and by no agency, in all probability, with more efficiency than by the Chautauqua Institution. The intelligence, energy, organizing ability, and fine spirit that have characterized this Institution from the beginning, mark it as a notable achievement, even in this day of large things. College men can have only warmest wishes for this movement to popularize knowledge, to give a wider view of the world and of labor, and to uplift social life. All honor to its promoters, and still higher success to the Institution.

Herbert Welch

OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE
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Perhaps one of the strongest impressions that we shall gain from our study of Mr. Brooks' series, is the feeling that America is a country which is on trial and that in some way our success or failure is a question of great moment to the rest of the world. The door of hope on this side of the Atlantic has seemed to open so very wide. Are our neighbors from across the seas to find this a mere illusion or a substantial reality? Such an impression is stimulating to our patriotism in the largest sense, for it puts upon every one some responsibility for the world's future.

Last summer *Charities* published a "Play" number (August 3.) It was a picturesque setting forth of the city playground movement. A development which every city dweller readily appreciates. But it also brought out another side of the question less apparent to most of us. The need of play in the country, organized, directed play. To quote from the principal of a country normal school:

"Country children do not play much and if they do not play much they do not play enough. Their repertoire of games is surprisingly small and inadequate, moreover their few games are strongly individualistic, training them for isolated efforts rather than for coöperation. The country child would undoubtedly play more if conditions were favorable. In the first place his parents

are usually out of sympathy with play. This is particularly true of farm life. They do not see the use of it. There is no end of work to be done and play is considered a waste of time. Moreover the country child is handicapped from the fact that he does not know how to play or what to play. The case of the village boy may be said to be particularly bad, for unlike the farm child, he usually has comparatively little work to do and unless he has opportunities outside of school for athletics and play he is likely to pass much of his time in inane idleness or in activities that are far from wholesome."

All of this has a bearing upon the problem of the depopulation of the rural districts. Miss Addams' chapter in "Newer Ideals of Peace" on the protection of children and youth is full of suggestion. One realizes the enormous importance of this young life in the future of America. It is in this connection that Chautauqua students may help in working out one of the country's great problems since children are to be found everywhere. Here are a few suggestions for Chautauqua Circles or individual readers to consider. What do you know of the child life in your town or village? Is child labor a blot upon your community? Even if you live in a suburban community are there not congested districts where the "gang" spirit is already developing? Do you as a country dweller know boys and girls whose lives are solitary and dwarfed for lack of the play spirit? What can the chief of police tell of the boy problem in your town? What child problems confront the public school teachers which they are powerless to remedy? A Chautauqua circle may do much in gathering facts and then see what solutions of these difficulties can be devised by the best elements in the community.

A DUTCH CHAUTAUQUA IN AFRICA.

The influences which brought about the Dutch Reading Circle in South Africa can be traced far back into the 80's, when Chautauqua was carried to the Huguenot Seminary at Wellington, Cape of Good Hope, where it shed its light upon a country of strangely blended nationalities.

French, English, and Dutch came to know the significance of this American Indian name, and when the Rev. J. J. Ross of the Orange River Colony, found his way to Chautauqua some years later, he carried back with him convictions enough to found a Chautauqua Assembly and a Dutch C. L. S. C. His recent letter written in December is a cheering record of success. The good wishes and congratulations of all Chautauquans will be with him:

"Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

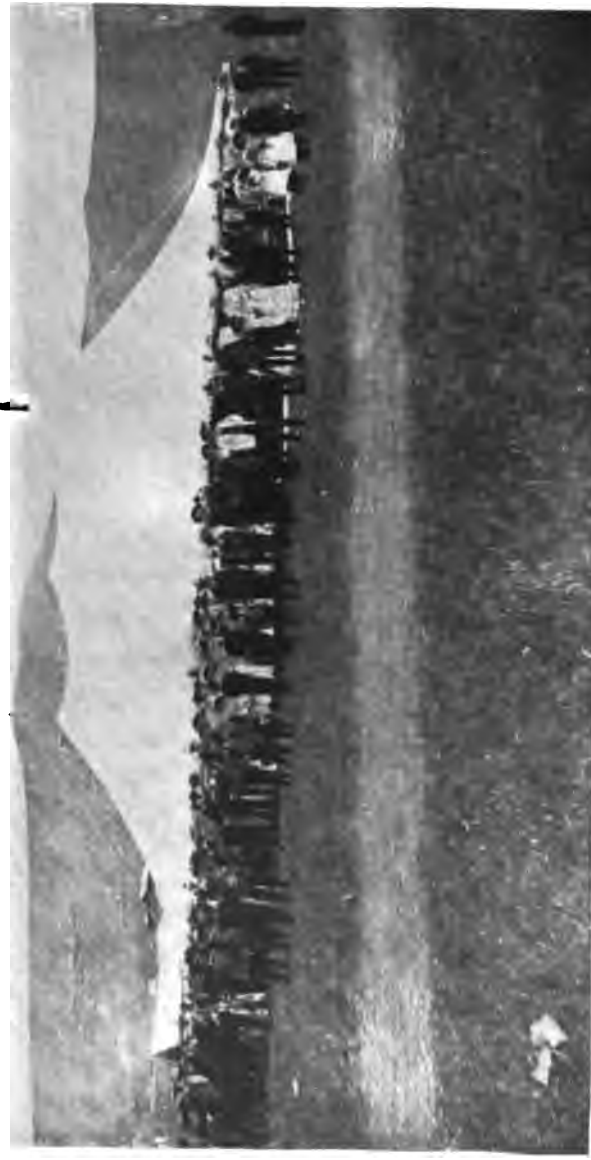
"Dear Editor: We have just had our third yearly Chautauqua Assembly at Kestell, O. R. C., which was even a greater success than the two previous assemblies, and they were a great success. We gathered in a large tent, 40x80, which had been ordered from Chicago, by the C. L. S. C. Committee for these assemblies. A large platform had been erected at one end for the speakers and for the choir which enlivened the meetings with splendid singing. This was our English-American Year. The Assembly lasted three days. Thirty or more lectures were delivered, all thoughtful and instructive and delivered very acceptably. Great interest was shown right through the gatherings. Here are a few of the lecture subjects: 'American History,' 'American Constitution,' 'English Government,' 'Calvin,' 'William Carey,' Physical Culture, 'The Existence of God,' 'Divinity of Christ,' 'The Inspiration of the Bible,' etc., etc. Under another cover I send you a few photographs, which I hope will be interesting to the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN: No. 1 is a photograph of our C. L. S. C. Committee; No. 2 shows the tent with people coming out after a meeting.

"We had some very eminent men with us this time. Among others ex-President Steyn and Mrs. Steyn. Mr. Steyn addressed the Assembly, giving expression to his appreciation of the work that is being done by the C. L. S. C. He was also proposed and elected 'honorary president' of the C. L. S. C. Some objected to the name, but at the last meeting, which was a conference, the Editor of the *Vriend des Volks* (the most influential Dutch paper in O. R. C.) and others stated that they came prejudiced against the C. L. S. C. but were convinced that the movement was doing excellent work and deserved the support of every well meaning Africander. At the close of next year we hope to graduate our first C. L. S. C. Class.

"We hope our fellow Chautauquans in America will think of us and perhaps give us hints, as to how to arrange and plan such a graduation day to give proper expression to its meaning.

"With all good wishes and greetings for the coming New Year, to our friends and fellow Chautauquans beyond the wide Atlantic ocean, I am, dear sir,

"Yours very truly J. J. Ross."



A View of the Dutch Chautauqua Assembly, Kestell, Orange River Colony, South Africa.

C. L. S. C. Committee of Dutch Chautauqua Assembly, South Africa.

NEWS FROM OTHER CLASSES.

The members of 1911 are reminded that a class motto from Longfellow is to be adopted by their representatives at Chautauqua next summer. These members of the Class ought to be fully instructed by their absent classmates who number several thousand in all parts of the country. By this time the C. L. S. C. "Freshmen" are beginning to realize what the Chautauqua Four Years Course is trying to do for people and class spirit is one of the important elements of the plan. If you are a 1911, make it a part of your business, one of your firmest resolutions, to select a motto from Longfellow, and an appropriate flower or tree or other emblem to go with it. In the Class Directory in the October CHAUTAUQUAN you will find the mottoes and emblems of the other classes. When you have made your selection send it to your Class president, Miss Mary E. Merington, 525 Massachusetts Avenue, Buffalo, New York. Do this by the twentieth of March if possible.

Designs for the floor tablets in the Hall of Philosophy for the classes of 1905 and 1910 are being prepared by the architects, Messrs. Green and Wicks of Buffalo. These will be dedicated next summer. Year by year other classes will place their tablets until in the near future the pavement of the Hall will become one of its most interesting features.

The Secretary of the 1906 Class reports that payments of sums pledged for an "Athenian Watch Fire" have been steadily coming in until a comparatively small amount of the sum now remains unpaid. This will be welcome news to the class at large who of course would like to have their "Light" shining as soon as possible. Doubtless the pledges yet outstanding will be made good before the new year is very far along, though all recognize the inexorable demands of "hard times." The secretary's address is Miss Irene I. F. Roach, 261 Fourth Ave., Lans. Sta., Troy, N. Y.

The 1909's, the "Dante" Class, who have been working out most carefully their plans for an appropriate banner, have recently sent a letter to the circles which were organized in 1905 and therefore are likely to contain many members of 1909. This letter is a friendly appeal for recognition of various class interests. Any members of the class who would like further particulars will receive a prompt reply if they write to the treasurer, Mr. B. A. Allen, 1901 West Fourth street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

DR. H. R. PALMER.

The late Dr. H. R. Palmer.

Dr. H. R. Palmer, whose death occurred a short time before Christmas, was for many years president of the C. L. S. C. Class of '91. His interest in the C. L. S. C. led him to enroll as a member when he first became connected with Chautauqua and when the Class of '91 graduated he wrote a song to be used at its Recognition Day exercises. As the author of a large number of books upon musical subjects and as the leader of the famous Church Choral Union of New York City, Dr. Palmer did very much to promote congregational singing and to popularize musical knowledge. He will be affectionately remembered by thousands of people who were trained in his choruses at Chautauqua during the fourteen years of his work there. Many of his hymns are known throughout the world.

The late Warren F. Walworth.

DEATH OF CHAUTAUQUA'S TREASURER.

Mr. W. F. Walworth, whose death occurred in Cleveland in January, had been treasurer of Chautauqua Institution since 1897. He was a member of the Class of '82, "The Pioneers," and showed his interest in many practical ways. In the later years of his life in spite of the exacting claims of business and his failing health, he organized a Circle and gave it his close personal attention. He believed in the educational ideals for which the C. L. S. C. stands, and his generous service to the C. L. S. C. and to Chautauqua Institution was a confident expression of that belief.

TENNYSON'S ULYSSES.

(Selected as the Class Poem for 1908.)

"It little profits that, an idle king,
By this still hearth, among these barren crags,
Matched with an aged wife, I mete and dole
Unequal laws unto a savage race,
That hoard, and sleep, and feed, and know not me.
I cannot rest from travel; I will drink
Life to the lees: all times I have enjoyed
Greatly, have suffered greatly, both with those
That loved me, and alone; on shore, and when
Through scudding drifts the rainy Hyades
Vext the dim sea. I am become a name:
For always roaming with a hungry heart,
Much have I seen and known,—cities of men,
And manners, climates, councils, governments,
Myself at least, but honored of them all;
And drunk delight of battle with my peers,
Far on the ringing plains of windy Troy.
I am a part of all that I have met;
Yet all experience is an arch wherethrough
Gleams that untraveled world, whose margin fades
Forever and forever when I move.
How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnished, not to shine in use!
As though to breathe were life. Life piled on life
Were all too little, and of one to me
Little remains; but every hour is saved
From that eternal silence,—something more,
A bringer of new things: and vile it were
For some three suns to store and hoard myself,
And this gray spirit yearning in desire
To follow knowledge like a sinking star,
Beyond the utmost bound of human thought.

"This is my son, mine own Telemachus,
To whom I leave the scepter and the isle:
Well loved of me, discerning to fulfill
This labor, by slow prudence to make mild
A rugged people, and through soft degrees
Subdue them to the useful and the good.
Most blameless is he, centered in the sphere
Of common duties, decent not to fail
In offices of tenderness, and pay
Meet adoration to my household gods,
When I am gone. He works his work, I mine.

"There lies the port; the vessel puffs her sail;
There gloom the dark broad seas. My mariners,
Souls that have toiled, and wrought, and thought with me,
That ever with a frolic welcome took
The thunder and the sunshine, and opposed
Free hearts, free foreheads,—you and I are old;

Old age hath yet his honor and his toil:
Death closes all; but something, ere the end,
Some work of noble note, may yet be done,
Not unbecoming men that strove with gods.
The lights begin to twinkle from the rocks;
The long day wanes; the slow moon climbs; the deep
Moans round with many voices. Come, my friends,
'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of all the western stars, until I die.
It may be that the gulfs will wash us down;
It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles,
And see the great Achilles, whom we knew.
Though much is taken, much abides; and though
We are not now that strength which in old days
Moved earth and heaven—that which we are, we are:
One equal temper of heroic hearts,
Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield."

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL.

FIRST WEEK: MARCH 24-31.

In the Required Book: "Newer Ideals of Peace," Chapter VI. "Protection of Children for Industrial Efficiency."

SECOND WEEK: MARCH 31-APRIL 7.

In the Required Book: "Newer Ideals of Peace," Chapter VII. "Utilization of Women in City Government."

THIRD WEEK: APRIL 7-14.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us," Chapter XIV: "A Philosopher as Mediator."

In the Required Book: "Newer Ideals of Peace," —Chapter VIII. "Passing of the War Virtues."

FOURTH WEEK: APRIL 14-21.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us," Chapter XV. "A Socialistic Critic." "American Painting," Chapter VI. Portraiture: "Whistler and Sargent."

In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction," Chapters I and II. "Types in New England."

FIFTH WEEK. APRIL 21-28.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "American Painting," Chapter VI. "Portraiture," concluded.

In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction," Chapters III and IV. "Types in New England."

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK: MARCH 24-31.

In connection with Miss Addams' chapter on "Protection of Children" this meeting might be devoted to aspects of the Child Labor problem. The January, 1907, number of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, pub-

lished in Philadelphia, offers admirable supplementary material. It contains from fifteen to twenty papers on all phases of the subject. It is bound in paper and can be secured for one dollar from the above address. A circle could secure a copy, separate the articles and assign them to different members, letting each member present in a five-minute talk the essential points of the paper with brief selections if advisable. A surprising number of facts will come to light in this way. Then close the meeting with a general discussion of points raised by Miss Addams. The following are some of the topics discussed in this interesting pamphlet: "Obstacles to Child Labor Reform;" "Some of the Effects of Premature Toil;" "Child Labor in Soft Coal Mines:" "Child Labor in Ohio and Border States;" "Children in the Glass Works of Illinois:" "Child Labor and the Public Schools;" "National Protection for Children;" "Attitude of Society toward the Child."

Some of the circles may like to get the "Play" number of *Charities*, August 3, 1907, which can be secured by sending ten cents to the *Charities* office, 105 East 22nd St., New York City. This contains a large number of illustrated articles on different aspects of the "play" movement in both city and country. It is a significant side light upon the needs of children. Is there any such need in your community? (See also paragraph in Round Table.)

Another special number of *Charities*, for October 5, 1907, is devoted to the very important question of Industrial Education. This might be secured instead of the "play" number if desired and the circle study this aspect of the Child problem.

SECOND WEEK: MARCH 31-APRIL 7.

Brief Oral Reports: Women in Trade Unions (See *The Outlook*, 84:926-31, Dec. 15, '06, article by Mrs. Kelley); Child Labor and Woman's Suffrage (*Outlook*, 82:622, March 17, '06); Housekeeper's Need of the Ballot (*World Today*, 12:418-21, April, '07).

Roll Call: Answers to the question, "Upon what economic and social subjects are women writing today?" Examine such magazines as are within your reach, especially *Charities*, *The Outlook*, *Atlantic Monthly*, *Independent*, *World Today*, *World's Work*, *Cosmopolitan*, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, and *Journal of Political Economy*, etc. The very smallest town library will have bound volumes of most of these magazines and college libraries will contain the last two. Look back for a year or two and a very interesting collection of topics can be made up. Each member should be assigned a given magazine for investigation.

Reading: Sketches of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe and Miss Clara Barton in this magazine.

Answer by each member to the question, "Why are women in this country comparatively indifferent to the question of Woman's Suffrage?"

of our government does he attribute to "Democratic dilettantism?" 11. How does he find us wanting in educational achievements? 12. What does he say of our intellectual bondage in religious matters? 13. What intellectual and moral slavery does he note in our politics?

CHAPTER XV. A SOCIALIST CRITIC.

1. What different types of socialists among our critics does Mr. Brooks describe? 2. What are Mr. Wells' views of our immigrant problem? 3. How does he look upon the race question in America? 4. Why does he think that socialism is too good for America? 5. What is his view of the trader, even of the best type? 6. How does he compare England and America with respect to graft? 7. What is his view of the benevolences of our rich men? 8. What in Mr. Brooks' opinion is the service of Socialism to our time?

SEARCH QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US."

1. With what agitation was Denis Kearney connected? 2. Who is Ostrogorski? 3. What was the origin of the right of *habeas corpus?* 4. Who is H. G. Wells? 5. Explain the reference to Carnegie and Dunfermline. 6. What is "billingsgate?"

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"I've just been examining the Whittier program of the Stamford, Connecticut, Circle," said Pendragon. "It is so artistic and yet so easily worked out that I think we will open the Round Table by asking Mr. LePage, the president, to explain how it's done." "You will notice that it is a very simple affair," responded the delegate, "first a piece of firm gray cover paper folded over not quite in the middle so that the first and second pages which have a rough edge are perhaps a half inch narrower than the third and fourth. We cut an oval hole in the front cover fastening a portrait of Whittier behind it and with white ink lettered his name and birthday below the picture and the words 'Stamford C. L. S. C.' above it. To the third page we attached a plain white slip of paper, with the numbers of the program lettered in black. At the meeting we discussed Whittier as a man, and as a poet, with a paper also upon his poetry and an interpretative recital of 'Snow Bound.' It was a great pleasure to have this beautiful poem presented to us so effectively. We met at the home of Mr. Pike who gave the recital and his collection of pictures of Whittier's home and haunts added much to the interest. Our circle's membership is fifty per cent larger than last year and we expect to keep on growing."

"May I add our program?" said a Des Moines member as she laid on the table a light buff leaflet printed in dark blue. "The Des Moines Chautauqua League has already celebrated its tenth

birthday. While only Chautauquans are eligible to active membership, the public may become honorary members by paying an annual fee of twenty-five cents. The League, which is a union of circles, meets monthly preparing a program related to and supplementing the regular work of the circles. In October we held a social meeting, welcoming our new officers and the new members of the seven circles which constitute our membership. In November a lecture on 'Reminiscences of the Civil War and its Personnel' by Dr. J. E. Cathell proved very successful and in December we had a program of songs and poems of the Southland. At this meeting we had the pleasure of welcoming Miss Julia Fuller of Beatrice, Nebraska, who has been very active both in circle and in Assembly Round Table work for many years. An educational program for January brought out 'Newer Ideals in Education' in an address by Mr. E. A. Nye, the editor of one of our dailies, and Miss Dunlap of the 'Roadside Settlement' described her work and emphasized the relation which we all sustain to the immigrant. In February a social celebration of Washington's birthday will be followed in March by a stereopticon tour of observation of 'Nature's handiwork in our own country' by Rev. J. H. String. At the April meeting Mrs. C. E. Risser will conduct a program on American authors, in May comes our annual meeting, and in June a picnic! We enjoy hearing of the activities of other circles and perhaps the plan of our League which has worked very well may appeal to some other community."

"I understand," said Pendragon, "that the Edelweiss Circle of Mt. Vernon, New York, has been profiting by a debate on the question, 'Resolved, that Immigration shall be further restricted and limited.' We should all like to know how it came out." The Edelweiss delegate, Mr. Hickok, explained that the debate was conducted by the "Saturday Night Debating Club." "Six members of the class," he said, "attended our last meeting in December and gave us the benefit of their best thinking. Very strong arguments were heard on both sides but the negatives were adjudged the victors and I don't think it was 'unreasonable optimism' that won the day either! I may add that our circle did not lose its energy during the holidays. At our first meeting in January we welcomed our president back from Europe. He gave us some vivid accounts of his experiences, among the most interesting being his journey through the counties of Devon and Cornwall which we studied in last year's travel series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. He generously distributed some beautiful postal cards among the members, presented to each officer a fine London photograph, neatly framed, and proposes to use a few others as prizes for the largest number of correct answers

to the review questions at our next four or five meetings. Our members really need no spur for they believe in the work for its own sake. But we are all human and you can fancy how much midnight oil will be consumed prior to our next few quizzes."

"If you had attended our first January meeting you would have found that we also were none the worse for the holidays," commented the delegate from Mobile, Alabama. "We had a quiz on American Literature and refreshed our memories of Benjamin Franklin by a paper on the subject. We were all quite fascinated by Mr. Crothers' 'Anglo-American School of Polite Unlearning' in the September *Atlantic*. The author makes it sound so very real that we were quite persuaded that the school would be worth a visit! The American Painting articles have attracted us very much and we are doing good work with them."

"Gower, Missouri, where our circle is situated," remarked another delegate, "is out in the country half way between St. Joseph and Kansas City. There are about four hundred people in the village and we have no immigrants. Our meetings are very interesting. We all bring notes upon our outside reading and as the circle is small, our discussions are very informal. We have one graduate of the Class of '91 so we feel as if our circle had a sort of Chautauqua pedigree although as a circle we are only a few years old."

"In spite of our national tendency toward titles and coats of arms," commented Pendragon, "I think we ought to encourage this circle in its ambitions. No dangerous tendency toward aristocracy seems to have developed among us yet. I note that this letter from Wadena, Minnesota, speaks of that circle as in a farming community where the population is about two thousand. The circle numbers fourteen members and they write that they have made it 'strictly a study club, doing no outside work at all.' These reports from farming communities interest me greatly, and I hope some of the circles will get the 'Play' number of *Charities* and meditate upon its suggestions regarding organized play in the country. It is a new idea to many of us, and like many new ideas one which seems so practical that we wonder why it hasn't taken root before. Chautauquans ought to serve as mediums for such ideas and these country circles might render a great service by appointing some member to make a digest of such an article and get the local paper to publish it."

"We also represent a small country community," said the delegate from Chautauqua, "and our A. M. Martin Circle has a very live membership. We have had occasional visits from officers of the Chautauqua Institution who are sojourning here for a short

time. Rev. D. W. Howell, the recently appointed field secretary of the C. L. S. C., was with us in December and supplemented our study of American painting by a very discriminating address. We constantly have very spirited discussions—one of these upon Whitman made a great impression. The Transcendental Movement and its influence gave us one of our most delightful meetings. We have a cozy gathering place in our very attractive church parlors and though winter sometimes descends upon us in ruthless fashion we rarely let it get the upper hand. We celebrated Lanier Day by a social meeting at the home of our president, Mrs. Day. Quotations from Lanier's poems and a reading by Mr. Day of 'The First Steamboat up the Alabama' opened the exercises. Longfellow's 'Evangeline' formed quite a unique feature of the program for each member was furnished with a blue print of some part of Acadia to which were attached lines from the poem. These were numbered and when the leader in her descriptive reading of the poem called for a number each reader in turn read the lines which fitted in and made up the story. The pictures were retained by the members as reminders of this reading journey to Acadia. In accordance with a previous request of the president members brought from their home libraries old books illustrative of the literary tastes of times long past. Several of these books were one hundred years old. The oldest being 'Doddridge's Lectures,' 1768."

"That allusion to 'Doddridge's Lectures,'" rejoined a New York member, "calls up visions of my childhood when I used to beguile the wearisome sermon time in church by reading the names of the writers in the back of the hymn book. That of Philip Doddridge was imprinted upon my memory for all time and still has a sort of halo about it, though I never have known exactly where to place him chronologically."

"The 1911's ought to have developed a good deal of enthusiasm over their class poet by this time," said a member of the Santa Clara, California, Circle, "what with the Longfellow Centenary and our American Year. So much is being made in these days of 'Original Sources' that we thought we would make the acquaintance of the 'Kalevala' the great Finnish epic whose weird metre gave Longfellow the proper setting for his 'Hiawatha.' Perhaps you'd like to hear a few lines to show how charming the old poem is:

'Many runes the cold has told me,
Many lays the rain has brought me,
Other songs the winds have sung me;
Many birds from many forests,
Oft have sung me lays in concord;

Waves of sea and ocean billows,
Music from the many waters,
Music from the whole creation
Oft have been my guide and master.'

"Some thirty members of our circle were present at this meeting, and in addition to the selection from the 'Kalevala' we discussed thoroughly the articles on American Painting."

"I may add," said Pendragon, "that in volume XV of the Warner Library of the World's Best Literature you will find a very clear account of the relation of the Finns to the Russians, the Swedes, and the Huns and the peculiar influence of this famous poem which Max Müller places fifth among the world's great epics. Some of you may like to make a list of epics and see which you think might constitute the other four."

OUTLINE OF AMERICAN LITERATURE.

I. The Colonial Period.

In the South, great landowners, well-to-do farmers, poor whites, and slaves.

Literature: Captain John Smith writes *A True Relation of Virginia;* William Strachey in 1610, *Wrack and Redemption of Sir Thomas Gates*—possible hints for *The Tempest.*

In the North, graduates of Oxford and Cambridge, dissenters from the Church of England. Democratic tendencies.

Literature: William Bradford's *History of Plymouth Plantation;* John Winthrop's *History of New England.*

The Early Ministers: Rev. Nathaniel Ward of Ipswich with his *Simple Cobbler of Agawam,* Francis Higginson of Salem, John Eliot of Natick: Apostle to the Indians, Thomas Hooker of Hartford, John Cotton of Boston, Roger Williams of Providence, Michael Wigglesworth and his *Day of Doom.*

Anne Bradstreet, the Tenth Muse.

The Later Ministers: Samuel Sewall and his *Diary,* Increase and Cotton Mather, the *Magnalia Christi,* Jonathan Edwards and his *Freedom of the Will.*

II. The Revolutionary Period.

"Politics" the theme of literature in contrast to the "theology" of the Colonial Period. Growing material prosperity. *The Old Dominion,* raising corn, cotton, rice, indigo, and tobacco and cultivating the graces of social life. *The Middle Colonies.* Grain and food stuffs, farming, fur trading and shipbuilding; a polyglot population with the Quaker leaven of tolerance. *New England;* fisheries, agriculture, fur trading, and lumber. The West Indian trade.

Literature: Benjamin Franklin: *Poor Richard;* his *Autobiography.*

Oratory: Josiah Quincy, James Otis, Samuel Adams, and Patrick Henry.

Statesmanship: George Washington, his *Farewell Address,* Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, *The Federalist,* James Madison,

the *Constitution.* Thomas Jefferson, the *Declaration of Independence.*

Poetry: Joel Barlow's *Hasty Pudding.* Trumbull's *McFingal.* Phyllis Wheatley's *Poems.* Philip Freneau's *Poems.*

Novel writing: Feminine experiments of an ultra sentimental sort. Charles Brockden Brown's *Wieland and Arthur Mervyn.*

Autobiography: John Woolman's *Journal.*

III. National Era, General Aspects.

1. Washington to Jackson: The Embargo Act, War of 1812, The Monroe Doctrine, Era of Good Feeling, 1793 the Cotton Gin, 1807 Fulton's Steamboat. Handel and Haydn Society, North American Review 1815. Lectures on Shakespeare.

Literature: William Dunlap, "he can't write and he can't paint" though a useful chronicler. John Howard Payne and "Home, Sweet Home." Sentimental productions by Mrs. Sigourney, Debby Lenox, Mrs. Brooks. Woodworth's *The Old Oaken Bucket,* Morris' *Woodman Spare that Tree.* Francis Scott Key's *Star-Spangled Banner.* The Knickerbocker School, Willis, Irving, Paulding, Halleck, and Drake.

2. Jackson to Lincoln: The Spoils System, The Panic of '37, The Mexican War '48, California in '49. Teutonic immigration, Irish famine and immigrants, The Missouri Compromise, 1850. Civil War.

Literature: War songs and Tributes. Lowell's *Biglow Papers.* The liberal movement in New England, ethical and idealistic. Transcendentalist and Abolitionist. *The Atlantic Monthly* and *Uncle Tom's Cabin.* Foreign Criticism of American Crudeness.

3. Lincoln to McKinley: Reconstruction. Growth of Cities, Immigration in 1882. Great Changes in 1902; Occupation of the Western lands; Civil Service Reform; Growth of Monopolies; Labor Struggles to preserve the "Standard of Life."

Literature: A period of great versatility without stars of the first magnitude. Rise of the Universities and Women's Colleges. Increase in periodicals. The illustrated magazine. Portrayals in literature of our rich and varied provincial life.

IV. National Era: Poetry.

1. Bryant. Cummington, Mass. Studied law. Editor of *New York Evening Post. Thanatopsis, The Forest Hymn, The Tides. A Hymn of the Sea, To a Waterfowl, The Fringed Gentian, The Battlefield, The Stream of Life,* Translator of *Iliad* and *Odyssey.*

2. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Portland, Maine. Graduated at Bowdoin. Professor at Harvard. Prose: *Outre Mer, Hyperion* and *Kavanagh.* Poetry: *Voices of the Night.* Ballads, *Evangeline, Hiawatha, Miles Standish, Tales of a Wayside Inn, Christus, Michael Angelo.* Translator of Dante and other European masterpieces.

3. James Russell Lowell. Cambridge, Mass. Graduate and Professor at Harvard. Editor of *Atlantic* and *North American Review. The Vision of Sir Launfal, Fable for Critics, The Biglow Papers, Harvard Commemoration Ode, The Cathedral, Agassis, Under the Willows, Heartsease and Rue.*

4. Oliver Wendell Holmes. Cambridge, Mass. Graduate of Harvard. Professor in Harvard Medical School. *The Chambered*

Nautilus, Musa, Martha, The Last Leaf, Old Ironsides, My Aunt, The One-Hoss Shay, The Boys, The Height of the Ridiculous.

5. John Greenleaf Whittier. East Haverhill, Mass. Editorial Work. *Snow Bound,* Indian legends and border ballads. *The Tent on the Beach. Voices of Freedom, In War Times and Other Poems, Home Ballads and Poems, The Eternal Goodness.*

6. Ralph Waldo Emerson. Boston. Harvard College. Concord. Nature Poems. *Voluntaries, The Concord Hymn, Threnody, Monadnock, May Day, The Problem, The World Soul, Days, Ode to Beauty.*

7. Thomas Bailey Aldrich, Edward Rowland Sill, George E. Woodberry, Thomas William Parsons, Jones Very, Celia Thaxter, Richard Burton, Emily Dickinson, Lucy Larcom, John G. Saxe.

8. Edgar Allen Poe. Boston, Mass. *The Bells, The Raven, Dreamland, The City in the Sea, The Haunted Palace, Israfel, The Sleeper, Ulalume.*

9. Sidney Lanier, Macon, Georgia. *Hymns of the Marshes, The Symphony, My Springs, A Ballad of Trees and the Master, Resurrection, Song of the Chattahoochee, The Revenge of Hamish, The Mocking Bird, The Crystal.*

10. Henry Timrod. John B. Tabb, Paul Hamilton Hayne.

11. Bayard Taylor. R. H. Stoddard. Thomas Buchanan Read. Charles Godfrey Leland. Edmund Clarence Stedman. J. G. Holland. James Whitcomb Riley. Edith Thomas. Bret Harte. R. W. Gilder.

12. Walt Whitman. *Leaves of Grass, Drum Taps.* and others.

V. National Era: Prose.

1. Criticism of Life: Ralph Waldo Emerson: *Essays, The American Scholar, The Divinity School Address, Representative Men, English Traits.* William Ellery Channing. Theodore Parker. Margaret Fuller. Amos Bronson Alcott. Edward Everett Hale.

2. Criticism of Society: Oliver Wendell Holmes: *The Autocrat* series. *Over the Teacups. Elsie Venner. The Guardian Angel, A Mortal Antipathy.* Charles Dudley Warner. Mark Twain.

3. Criticism of Letters: James Russell Lowell: *My Study Windows, Among my Books,* other volumes and essays. E. P. Whipple, E. C. Stedman. Agnes Repplier. Hamilton W. Mabie.

4. History: Bancroft, *History of the United States,* Prescott, *Conquest of Mexico, Conquest of Peru,* etc., Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic, History of the United Netherlands,* etc., Parkman, *The Oregon Trail* and series on France in America.

5. Oratory: Wendell Phillips. Charles Sumner. Henry Clay. John C. Calhoun. Daniel Webster. Rufus Choate. Edward Everett.

6. Studies in Nature: Thoreau. *Walden, The Maine Woods Excursions,* etc. John Burroughs, *Wake Robin, Fresh Fields,* etc.

VI. National Era: Prose Fiction.

1. Adventure: James Fenimore Cooper's Novels.

2. Humor and Pathos: Irving's *Knickerbocker.* Mark Twain's *Innocents Abroad.* Donald G. Mitchell. George William Curtis' *Prue and I.*

3. Mystery and Terror: Edgar A. Poe's Tales.

4. Idealism: Nathaniel Hawthorne.

5. Realism: W. D. Howells. Henry James.

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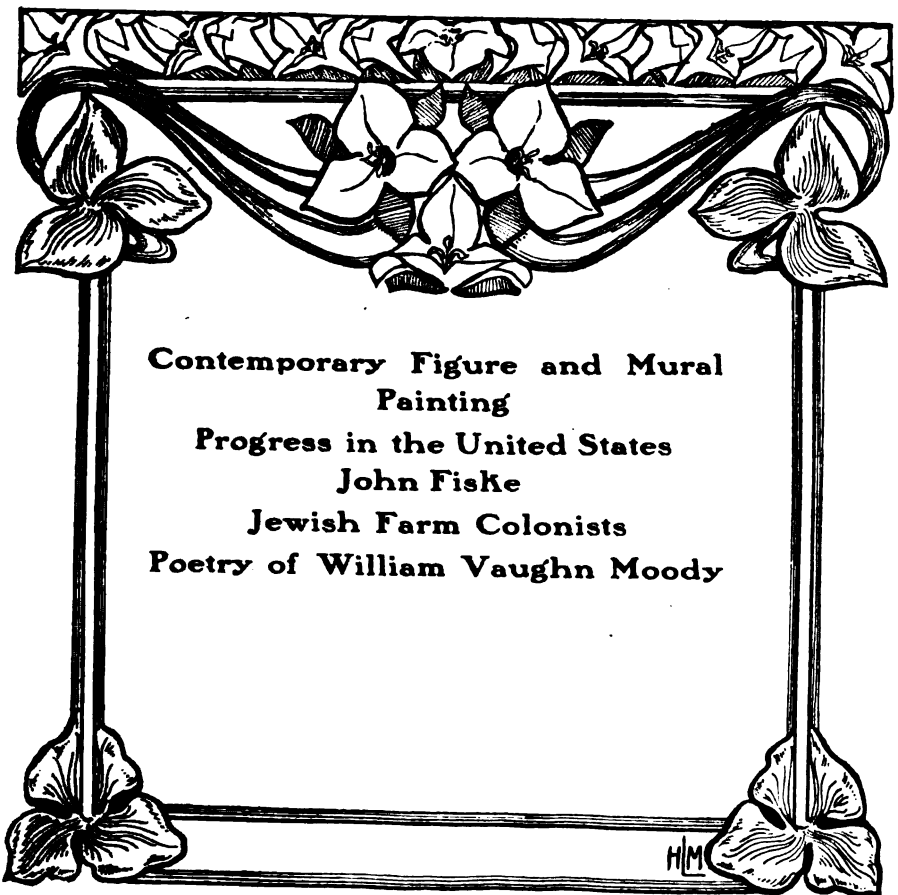

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CONTENTS FOR APRIL, 1908

COVER DESIGN

Mural Paintings by John W. Alexander ..... **Frontispiece**

Highways and Byways **163**

Labor Decisions in Supreme Court. Congress and the Reform Movement. Our Treaties of Arbitration. Muncipal Government by Commission. Tyranny and Assassination in Portugal. Party Politics and Social Reform in England. The Taft and Hughes Candidacies. Notes and Comment.

As Others See Us ..... **John Graham Brooks** **176**

XVI. Signs of Progress.

American Painting ..... **George Breed Zug** **201**

VII Contemporary Figure Painting. VIII. Contemporary Mural Painting.

Immigrants on the Land ..... **Kellogg Durland** **248**

II Jewish Farmers.

Some Great American Scientists ..... **George Perry** **266**

VII. John Fiske

The Poetry of William Vaughn Moody ..... **Carl H. Grabo** **274**

The Vesper Hour ..... **Chancellor John H. Vincent** **284**

Library Shelf **287**

Edward Alexander MacDowell **296**

Greetings from President Craighead of Tulane University **299**

C. L. S. C. Round Table ..... **Conducted by Kate F. Kimball** **301**

Talk About Books **317**

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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TWO more "anti-labor" decisions have been rendered by the federal Supreme Court. In the press they have been freely spoken of as "crushing blows" to unionism, while the labor leaders themselves, with more reserve and caution, have discussed them regretfully and suggested that legislation would be necessary to neutralize their effect. These decisions are the more important since they are admittedly likely to become a factor in the political situation. Labor chiefs complain that the courts are illiberal in applying old, obsolete principles to new industrial and social relations; and the candidates for the presidency are sure to be judged by many with reference to their respective positions on this question. In England adverse judicial decisions gave a striking impetus to independent political action on the part of labor; what will be the effect of similar decisions in this country?

In the first place, the Supreme Court, overruling the lower tribunals, invalidated on constitutional grounds that section of the so-called Erdmann act (passed some ten years ago) which prohibited railroads and other common carriers engaged in interstate commerce from discharging union men because of their membership in unions or from insisting that union applicants for employment resign their membership. The Erdmann act is essentially a conciliation and arbitration act; it provides for public investigation of industrial disputes at the request of any of the parties, and

for moral efforts toward a settlement. The act has never been particularly effective, but in recent years it has occasionally been invoked. The section against discrimination on account of unionism in giving employment is independent of the principal sections of the act, but the lower courts sustained it on the ground that its purpose, like the purpose of the rest of the act, was clearly to protect and foster interstate commerce by preventing strikes, sudden interruptions, friction and inconveniences to the shippers and the public.

The Supreme Court, however, was unable to discover any "possible or logical connection" between interstate commerce and any employe's connection with a labor union. The power of Congress to regulate commerce, said the court, is the power to regulate either the subjects or the instrumentalities of commerce, and whether an employe is or is not a member of a union cannot be said to affect commerce. Moreover, the opinion continued, there was a deeper objection to the provision—it was an invasion of the right of property and of contract. Employers could not be required by Congress to employ such or discharge such men, any more than Congress could require workmen to take such labor or reject such other labor. The right to discharge, or to refuse to employ, for any reason is the correlative, indeed, of the right to strike, which is unrestricted, and even the power to regulate interstate commerce would not justify an attempt to restrict either right by legislation.

The other decision alluded to dealt with a Connecticut case in which a firm of hatters complained of a national boycott that had been carried on against it by the hatters' union and its sympathizers. The facts were not in dispute: the existence of a national boycott against the firm was admitted, such boycott having been instituted to compel it to unionize its factory. The question was whether such a boycott was unlawful under the national anti-trust

law, whether it was a "combination in restraint of interstate commerce." The lower courts had held that it was not, because the boycotters had nothing to do with interstate commerce and never even touched any of the firm's hats in course of transportation. The Supreme Court unanimously declared that any agreement to injure the national, outside trade of a person or corporation was a violation of the trust law and an attempt to obstruct, injure and destroy commerce among the states. The illegality of the boycott was strongly affirmed by the court, and the opinion seems to make it possible for any employer who is threatened with a general boycott in more than one state to secure both an injunction and heavy damages from the boycotters for injuries inflicted.

Now, most of the labor leaders and organs insist that the peaceful boycott is a legitimate weapon to use in forcing employers to recognize unions or grant demands made by their employes. The boycott, they argue, is merely the withholding of trade from one or from several whom one is under no obligation to patronize, and if one man may do what he sees fit with his custom, any number of men, singly or in combination, may do the same thing. The decision appears to them a denial of a fundamental right—to sell and buy where they please—and a denial based on doctrines that have come down from a time when labor was harshly and unjustly treated by the law and the court. In the press both decisions have been approved, but the fact is recognized that the unrest among workmen may have serious political consequences.

Congress and the Reform Movement

It has not been the intention of the leaders in Congress to enact any "general" legislation of moment this year—first, because it is presidential year and mistakes are apt to prove dangerous, and second, because many business men

have been demanding a "rest" and a cessation of agitation and "interference" with industry, commerce and affairs. Not a few organs have blamed the Roosevelt regime for the recent panic and the business depression that followed it, and of course the upshot of all such talk was that an end must be put to all radical, experimental or "disturbing" legislation.

Even now, it may be admitted, the chances are that Congress will limit itself to moderate currency reform, appropriation bills, and some minor measures. "Even now," it may be said, for the President is determined that, so far as his influence goes, this year shall be one of progress and construction, not one of stagnation, still less of reaction.

His "fighting" message to Congress was more than an arraignment of dishonest men in politics and business who systematically misrepresent and resist the correction of notorious abuses in finance, corporate enterprises and public utilities. It was more than a general demand for equality of opportunity and the abolition of unfair special privilege. It was a plea for certain specific reforms, for measures completing and rounding out the legislation of the last two or three years in relation to railroads, interstate commerce and so on.

The administration favors legislation increasing the power now possessed by the interstate commission over rate-making by railroads, over capitalization (in order to prevent inflation and manipulation of securities) and over the physical operation of trains, to make travel safer and transportation more efficient. The President favors legislation for the better protection of employes and for the greater "equalization" of the conditions under which employers and employes make their contracts. He favors more effectual provisions for conciliation and arbitration. He favors revision of the trust law in the interest of honest combinations of capital and labor. He favors limita-

tion of the use of the writ of injunction in industrial disputes.

In the President's opinion most of these proposals are eminently reasonable, practical, and wholesome. In this he is supported by Secretary Taft, Senator Knox, Governor Hughes and other prominent Republican leaders who are candidates for the presidential nomination. The majority of the voters are also with him, evidently, regardless of partisan affiliations, for Democrats, independents and radicals have vied with advanced Republicans in praising the President's recent utterances and applauding his stand for further reform in corporate business, in railroad management, in taxation, and in politics. It will be interesting to note how far the year's work in Congress will reflect this public sentiment.

Our Treaties of Arbitration

The Senate with but little talk and ado, recently ratified a treaty with France for the submission to the Hague arbitration court of all differences that may arise between that country and the United States, provided they do not affect the vital interests, the independence, or the honor of either of the contracting parties, and provided the interests of no third government are involved. The treaty is not new. It was negotiated some three years ago and discussed by the Senate. It was, however, dropped by the State Department at that time because the Senate insisted on an amendment which appeared to be highly objectionable to the executive. The amendment was to this effect—that any specific agreement for the submission of a particular dispute under the terms of the general treaty should be subject to the approval of the Senate. This, it was said at the time, reduced the general treaty to a nullity, for it made it merely a vague promise to try to arbitrate certain disputes if the Senate be willing. However, further reflection satisfied the State De-

partment that even with the amendment the value of a general arbitration treaty would, morally speaking, be considerable. The other powers care little about the machinery of our government, and to them a treaty of arbitration is a treaty of arbitration, no matter who negotiates the specific agreements under it and by whom the protocol for arbitration of a given issue is revised, considered and approved.

The Franco-American arbitration treaty is an outgrowth of the resolution of the third Hague conference, which urged the powers to conclude such treaties among themselves, seeing that the time was not ripe for a great, general treaty embracing all the civilized nations and establishing one uniform scheme of arbitration. It is likely to be followed by several other treaties of the same scope and character. The United States, in fact, already has negotiated such treaties with Germany, England, Italy, Spain and other powers, and it is only necessary to take them up again and induce the Senate to ratify them. The amendment which disposed of the objections to the contention with France will likewise overcome the objections to the pending agreement. The principle involved is the same in all cases, and our foreign relations are such that we can offer to all, or nearly all, civilized nations what we have bound ourselves to do in the case of the French Republic.

The excepting of "vital" questions or those affecting honor may disappoint the more advanced and idealistic peace men, but even they should welcome the treaty as a long step in the right direction. The scope of arbitration will be gradually broadened, once the principle and the method have obtained proper recognition.

Municipal Government by Commission

The so-called Texas or Galveston plan of commission government for cities is steadily making headway in the country. Several cities in Kansas have voted to adopt it,

and in other places similar proposals have been defeated by very narrow margins. It is certain now that commission government is to have a real trial in the United States. The ordinary form, with its division of powers, its imitation of state and federal machinery, has been severely criticised by thoughtful Americans as clumsy, wasteful and vicious in a majority of cases, and the idea of concentrating all power and responsibility in a small body of experienced men, of enabling such a body to govern a city as a great business corporation is governed, is becoming familiar and popular.

As we have shown on a previous occasion, the most advanced and democratic plan of commission government is that provided for by a recent Iowa act. This act enables any city of a certain size to establish commission government of a prescribed type. The commissioners are given great power, but they are also placed under direct popular control. The people not only elect these commissioners—this is inevitable—but may recall any one of them during his term for misconduct or inefficiency. The voters may also initiate legislation and demand a referendum on any ordinance adopted by the commission.

If, however, the people seem disposed to try government by commission, doubt has attached to the legal aspects of the reform. Is it constitutional? Each state must obtain an answer to this question from its own courts, and it is noteworthy that the Supreme Court of Iowa has sustained in a decision of the most sweeping character the validity of the commission plan as provided by law for that state. Almost every feature of the plan had been attacked, and especially the provisions for the initiative and referendum, for the recall of unsatisfactory administrators, and for the abolition of the city council. The court took the broad ground that the constitutional requirements with regard to the separation of governmental powers, republican forms, etc., applied only to the state and federal governments, while municipalities might be governed in any way the legisla-

ture thought fit. It follows as a corollary that the legislature, in creating commission government for the sake of simplicity and efficiency, may give the voters as much control over the commission as it deems expedient.

This decision is a great victory for the new plan, and it is the more significant since Iowa is considered a very careful and conservative state. The movement for municipal government by commission will be stimulated by such high judicial approval. But the success of this plan depends on the degree of interest and earnestness which the voters display toward it. The best and most upright men must be willing to serve under it and the people must be watchful and alert. In the hands of selfish and unfit professional politicians commission government may be worse than government by mayors and councils and departments.

Tyranny and Assassination in Portugal

The assassination of the king and crown prince of Portugal shocked the whole world, though the internal troubles of that kingdom for months prior to the tragedy had led many to anticipate revolution and other grave developments. About a year ago Portugal's constitution was suspended and a dictatorship established. The king sanctioned the *coup* because the politics and administration of Portugal had long been thoroughly corrupt. Graft and plunder were general; many offices were sinecures; the highest as well as the lowest officials stole and wasted the public funds. Taxation increased, the national debt grew steadily, but the masses rereceived no benefits therefrom. Illiteracy and poverty were almost universal, and parliament could not and would not address itself to the work of education, administrative reform and retrenchment. Franco, a young minister of courage and honesty who had made a fine record, became premier and undertook the herculean task of reform. Few would coöperate with him, however, and he advised a tem-

porary dictatorship of a political sort. The king made him dictator in everything but the name, and he used his power fearlessly. He introduced economies, abolished offices, suppressed newspapers, banished enemies. He promised, however, that the constitution would be revived in the spring and an election held to give the country fair parliamentary government.

It was almost on the eve of this return to constitutional rule that the assassinations took place. Whether republicans or others committed the deed is still undetermined. But it put an end to the regime of Franco, who fled to France. A coalition ministry was formed and the second son of the late king, a boy of eighteen, was crowned king. The conditions are very chaotic, and some of the old grafters are back in office. But it is hoped that the tragedy will lead to a national awakening and to a regime of honest and efficient government in Portugal, which has been considered a "dying nation" for many decades.

Party Politics and Social Reform in England

The new year opened in Great Britain with a series of reverses for the government and the party in power. In three or four parliamentary by-elections tory candidates were successful, converting their previous minorities into majorities. The liberals themselves admitted that they could not account satisfactorily for these results. They have been in power only a little over two years, and two or three of their important bills were rejected in the House of Lords. If they have accomplished little, should not the people blame the hereditary upper chamber rather than the government? The tory party meets such arguments by saying that it is the propaganda of tariff change, of protection against foreign goods and preferential duties or no duties for the British colonies, that is leading the electors to reverse themselves. The liberals were placed in power on

the issue of free trade vs. protection chiefly, and now, according to the tory protectionists the voters are realizing their mistake, for the price of bread has risen under free trade and trade has decreased, with resultant idleness and suffering to tens of thousands. The Chamberlain section of the tory-unionist party is in full control and the tory free traders are inactive, silent and weak. The aggressiveness of the former makes it certain that the question of protection for England will be reopened and discussed throughout the country as the paramount issue in British politics, an issue with which many others are bound up. The liberals are making preparations for another great fight. When it will take place no one knows. The tories think that several additional reverses will so demoralize the liberal party that it will find it necessary to dissolve parliament and hold a general election before the end of the present year. The liberal editors and leaders pooh-pooh this notion. The liberal majority is so huge—about two hundred—that the loss of over twenty seats would scarcely affect its position. The party was elected to do certain things in addition to preserving free trade, and it must discharge its task before appealing to the country. This year the party will endeavor to deal with education, the question of liquor licensing and temperance, the housing of the poor, old-age pensions, agricultural small holdings, Irish university reform, etc. The program is colossal, and trouble with the lords is unavoidable over some of the proposed measures, but the liberals have declared war on the unreformed upper house, wish to limit its power over legislation, and will not shrink from further collisions with it over specific measures. In fact, the liberals intend in this way to make reform of the lords the paramount issue of the next general election, for it is an issue in which they will have the support of labor, the radicals, the socialists, and the Irish nationalists. They call this policy "filling up the cup" against the lords by passing desirable bills which the lords selfishly oppose. For

no matter what question might be the immediate cause of the dissolution of this parliament, the reform of the lords could then be put forward as the issue of issues.

Both parties are in the meantime making overtures to labor. The liberals are offering a beginning toward old-age pensions, better housing of the poor, a miners' eight-hour law, and small holdings of land as their immediate program of social reform. The tories, while denouncing socialism furiously, are professing to be even greater friends of social reform than the liberals. Protection, they say, will furnish funds for pensions and other necessary things where direct taxation will fail. The Labor party in parliament is maintaining an independent attitude, however, and votes for measures rather than for parties. It is manifesting pronounced socialistic leanings, as is organized labor at large. The recent trade union congress voted—though not by a decisive majority—that the time has come when labor must make socialization of the means of production and distribution the goal and objective of its endeavors. This resolution has aroused much opposition among the moderate and "old-fashioned" union workmen, but the fact that a majority of the convention delegates adopted it is regarded as significant.

The present parliament will no doubt pass some social-reform bills, and the lords will probably be advised by the tory leaders to approve them, as they approved the radical anti-conspiracy and anti-injunction bill of the labor party last year.

The Taft and Hughes Candidacies

It is not surprising that President Roosevelt's recent utterances should have revived in some quarters the talk of a third term for him. But it is not likely that the effort will enlist much general sympathy. The Taft movement has made too much headway for any such tendency, and

the feeling is growing stronger that Mr. Taft may be relied upon to continue the policies which have made Mr. Roosevelt so popular. His speeches are couched in moderate language, but the views they express are, as to all immediate questions, substantially the same as the views of the President.

Governor Hughes, it is true, also entertains practically the same views. He, too, is identified with the cause of corporate and railroad reform, of strict regulation of public service companies, of prevention of monopolistic abuse. Should he be the Republican nominee, and should the people select him, the campaign against wrong and oppression and dishonesty would go on. No one has any serious doubt as to that, even though some of the reactionary interests are undoubtedly working for the Hughes candidacy. Indeed, it would be difficult to point out any important difference between the Hughes profession of political faith and the Taft program or declaration of belief. There is much in common, even temperamentally, between these two leaders.

In political circles, however, it is believed that the Taft candidacy has acquired so much momentum and strength that it cannot be endangered even by the Hughes boom. In Ohio, his own state, Taft is now sure of a solid delegation to the national convention. A series of legal and primary victories completely demolished the Foraker opposition to Taft. Several other middle western states are already committed to Taft, and in the South he is the strongest of all the Republican candidates. It has been charged that federal patronage is being used in Taft's interest, but President Roosevelt has entered a vehement denial of this accusation.

We shall not refer to the "tables" and estimates and speculations which are indulged in daily in the press with reference to the next presidential nominations, but some interest attaches to two "straw votes" recently taken. The Chicago *Tribune* has canvassed several thousand editors,

political leaders and legislators, and has found Secretary Taft to be in the lead as a favorite by a 4-to-1 vote, nearly, over Governor Hughes, who, however, is second on the list of candidates. The *Independent* has asked its readers, who are all, or practically all, private citizens, to indicate their ideas as to issues and candidates, and while the sentiment is unanimous in favor of the Roosevelt policies 45 per cent. of the replies name Taft as the natural successor to Roosevelt and 38 prefer Hughes in that capacity.

The nomination of Taft by the Republicans is considered by many almost an assured thing. But the progressive elements of the party have cause for satisfaction in the fact that should Hughes win in the convention, after all, his candidacy would "spell" exactly the same reform and methods that Taft is believed to represent. Of the other Republican candidates none has made any visible progress of late.

NOTE AND COMMENT.

The magazine number of the *Outlook* for March contains an article upon the Italian aspects of our immigration problem, an article based upon a personal tour through southern Italy whence come the greater part of our Italian immigrants. Mr. H. F. Sherwood, the author of the article, found remote villages entirely depopulated of all able male workers, these being in America. Italy as a result of this migration is profiting to some extent as much money is sent back to the families at home by the exiled workers. Scarcity of labor in southern Italy is moreover raising the wages of farm hands though this change, beneficial to the peasants, is regarded by the landowners as a hardship.

In *Charities* for February 15 a map and accompanying article vividly indicate the progress made in the construction of tenements in New York City since the law of 1901 was passed. "Model" tenements have been built in sufficient number to accommodate over a million people.

The recently published report of Judge Harry Olson, chief justice of the Municipal Court of Chicago, shows economies of time and money as well as increased efficiency effected by the new municipal courts which take the place of the former police magistrate system. Cases are for the most part tried on the day of the offense and all within five days of the offense. The judges as a result of their year's experience are demanding an adult probation law.

A Century of Foreign Criticism On The United States---A Study of Progress.*

XVI. Signs of Progress

By John Graham Brooks

THAT our "progress" is manifest and assured is perhaps the most confident of American opinions. A French critic asks, "Why has the France of today such sickly doubts about herself, while America, in spite of her prolific sins, has the boisterous faith that does not really fear any danger or check upon her forward movement? Even if your American talks gloomily, it is all upon the surface. He is at heart a robust and reckless optimist."

This optimism of which everybody is proud, gets sadly mixed up with most arguments for progress. It is the justification of optimism that has to be first shown. No one is quite equal to the task, because final proofs of progress

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*Mr. Brooks' series of articles will be concluded in the May CHAUTAUQUAN. The September articles were: I. "The Problem Opened;" II. "Concerning Our Critics." October: III. "Who is the American?" IV. "Our Talent for Bragging." November: V. "Some Other Peculiarities;" VI. "American Sensitiveness." December: VII. "The Mother Country as a Critic;" VIII. "Change in the Tone of Foreign Criticism." January: IX. "Higher Criticism;" X. "Other French Visitors;" XI. "Democracy and Manners." February: XII. "Our Monopoly of Wit;" XIII. "Our Greatest Critic." March: XIV. "A Philosopher as Mediator;" XV. "A Socialist Critic."

cannot be given except in terms of character or of happiness and conscious well-being. But happiness! Who shall define it in its "higher" and "lower" scale? It has been the despair of dialecticians wherever this subject has been discussed.

I recall the sentence, "The age that has the most deserved and most diffused happiness is the age of highest progress." But who shall prove that the twentieth century is happier than the fifteenth? or that the days of John Milton were happier than those of Socrates? The reign of the Borgias in Italy seems to us full of all sorts of terrors for average men, but the studies of Taine led him to believe it a happier age than ours. He believed this because the Italians showed at that time so much *vitality*. It was the age of "magnificent and daring action." On the other hand, we are told that India has lost her vitality, and with it the power of great activity. Yet a Hindoo scholar told an audience in Boston, that the India he knew, was far happier than we of the United States because she was uncursed by our feverish activity. Quietness and meditation, with the habit of not wanting too many things, were to him indispensable to happiness. We are likely to reject this Oriental test, but the reasons we should give would doubtless seem to this Eastern gentleman merely to beg the question.

We are thus driven to other and secondary tests of progress. This is here justified because it is with these that our critics are for the most part concerned. They have to do chiefly with the conditions of social growth upon which "deserved happiness" in part at least depends. The points raised by our critics enable us to discern changes in these conditions that have very vital connection with social growth.

I select first that part of the country about which the visitors were most in despair, the South. Nearly thirty of them go there largely to study the institution of slavery and its social effects. They are generally charmed by the man-

ners and hospitality which inspire many cordial pages. Progress or the hope of it, few of them see. Mrs. Stowe never wrote a line so withering against the results of slavery as many of these foreign onlookers. That the very roots of industrial and political society under our form of government were already poisoned by the reactions of slave labor,—giving the whites contempt for honorable work, and turning to ridicule our whole theory of political equality, was the theme on which much high wrought feeling was expressed.

That it would end all dreams of having one national life was believed by most of them. Then, each after his own temperament, speculates as to the shapes the ruins will finally assume. A few make good guesses, but the results, as we now see them, would have amazed all these prophets. Social destinies are still deep in the shadows, because the "tragedy of color" has only changed its form. Yet there is no misconception so fundamental as to make this negro tradition in our day the determining or primary fact in the future of the South. The essential evil of slavery was that the negro as slave, gave shape and direction to *the whole industrial life* and, therefore, largely to the political life. Desperate as it now may be, the whole negro question has become secondary, while the entire new order of free industrial life is primary and creative. This seems to me the most impressive fact in the South.

Soon after the evils of "reconstruction," these changes in business structure and method began. Statistical measurements are at last accessible that are wholly trustworthy. From a date so recent as 1900, her products leap in value from less than one-half billion to nearly two and a half billions of dollars. Cotton spindles from six to ten millions; her assessed property from 5,266 millions to 8,000 millions; her bank deposits from 87 millions in 1896 to 171 millions in 1906: this is the material uprising of the South from the gaunt and awful poverty in which the war left her. But the growth of her educational purpose and achieve-

ment, her enlarged recognition of the unities of our national commonwealth, are still more impressive than all the climbing figures of her industrial prosperity. No one can travel there without seeing that the Southland tingles with new life which breaks through all crusts and all restraints. Her one grief is the lingering tradition of the slave. Yet, in the whole best side of that race, the progress as figured in property acquirement or by sacrifice for learning is as hopeful as any page of recent race history in the world.

Nor is it for a moment to be supposed that this special race burden is solitary or peculiar to the South. Largely a question of color and intermingling numbers, it faces and tests every civilized nation. It is the supreme lesson that all people have to learn together. Anyone who reads Olmsted's masterly studies of the South before the war, together with the pages of that sagacious journalist, E. L. Godkin, a few years later, can test the strides the South has taken. Better than either of these writers, Walter H. Page knows this subject. He knows it the better because he knows the North so well. Just returning from a ten weeks' trip, he compares the gains made largely within a dozen years. Hear his judgment:

"I doubt if anywhere in the world there has been so rapid a change in what may be called the fundamentals of good living and of sound thinking and of cheerful work, as the change that has taken place these ten years in many of these rural districts. Many a farmer who was in debt to his 'factor' now has money in the bank, a bank that itself did not exist ten years ago. The inherent good nature of the people approaches something like hilarity. If you direct the conversation toward prosperity, they will crack jokes with you about the needy condition of Wall Street, and remind you that their banks have money lent at interest in New York."

A dozen years ago, the talk of the Southerner was continually about the romance and drama of the past. Today it is not tradition, not even the terrors of Reconstruction that hold his attention. It is the present and the future. Mr. Page puts the spirit of the new change into this incident:

"I asked a young man at one of the Southern schools of

technology why he chose this training rather than training for one of the older professions. 'My grandfather,' said he, 'was a mighty man in theology in his day. He knocked out his opponents and he battered the devil. My father was a lawyer and a soldier. He fought the United States by argument and in war. I notice that the devil and the United States are both doing business yet. I made up my mind, therefore, that I would change the family job and do what I can to build mills and roads in Georgia.'"

It should be added that Mr. Page sees even greater encouragement in the renaissance of education.

Since 1896, I have been nine times into the South and I do not believe these words contain a single accent of exaggeration. With the skill of a good observer, Mr. Page does not take his reckoning chiefly from the favored border states, but rather from the lower South where the difficulties have been greatest. As one turns back to the gloomy conjuring of the older visitors, as one re-reads the shadowed pages in Dickens and Abdy, one seems to ask for a stronger word than "progress" to tell the tale.*

We must guard against the easy treachery of gauging real growth in material estimates. But these are not to be omitted if they are associated with other facts.

That the man who traveled yesterday in an easy chair from New York to Philadelphia in an hour and forty minutes was any happier than Mr. Jerrold who bumped through in a wagon with no springs in twenty-three hours, we cannot prove, because we have no test for the sensations of either traveler. That Mr. Jerrold had to get out frequently to help boost the stage from the ruts; that he arrived stiff and thick with mud does not prove that he was without enjoyment on that trip. The man in the plush chair may have been more disturbed by a delay of fifteen minutes than the earlier traveler was by a delay of four hours. Yet the change from twenty-three hours to two hours; from the

*In spite of much present opinion, the South was not happy under slavery. The most far seeing of the critics constantly note the deep currents of unhappiness which that institution brought to the best men and above all to the best women of the South. Except in degree, the story does not differ for the country as a whole.

bumping cart to the plush chair is an improvement which goes down on the side of progress. The added comfort is no mean gain, but far more are the economies in time and human strength. When Madison was elected President in November, 1812, Kentucky heard the news in the following *February*. This fact means much more than physical difficulties of transportation. It represents an average of mental lethargy and indifference which we have outgrown.

That a few years later than this, it should have cost one hundred and twenty-five dollars to carry a ton of coal from Pittsburg to Philadelphia is mainly a physical fact. It has quite other significance, that when our first critic was here, a Philadelphia publisher should be seriously advised not to start a paper in that city, because *there was already one in Boston.* There were those who gravely questioned whether the country could support two newspapers. It is in the same class with the latter fact, that in a prominent college, one professor could teach without protest, botany, Latin, chemistry, mineralogy, midwifery, and surgery. At this time the clergy in Boston were thrown into a frenzy of moral revolt by the announcement that two of Shakespeare's greatest plays, "Hamlet," and "Othello," were to be presented on the stage.

Our study began with a whole order of social phenomena of this character. One of our critics at the beginning of the nineteenth century went from Baltimore to Philadelphia. He paid six cents per mile on the stage, two dollars and twenty-five cents per day at hotels, and was three days on the way. Another wished to go from New York to Albany. He watched the papers three days for a boat. When it was finally announced, there was a further delay of thirty-six hours because of the weather. He had besides to take his own bedding and food.

Here is a description of a trip from New York to Philadelphia:

"We had about twenty miles down the Delaware to reach Philadelphia. The captain, who had a most provoking tongue, was a boy about eighteen years of age. He and a few companions despatched a dozen or eighteen bottles of porter. We ran three different times against other vessels that were coming up the stream. The women and children lay all night on the bare boards of the cabin floor. . . . We reached Arch street wharf about eight o'clock on the Wednesday morning, having been about sixteen hours on a voyage of twenty miles.

The Scotch Wilson, who had been nearly as severe on New England hotels, thus describes those on a trip through the South:

"'The taverns are the most desolate and beggarly imaginable; bare, bleak, and dirty walls, one or two old broken chairs and a bench form all the furniture. The white females seldom make their appearance. At supper you sit down to a meal, the very sight of which is sufficient to deaden the most eager appetite, and you are surrounded by half-a-dozen dirty, half-naked blacks, male and female, whom any man of common scent might smell a quarter of a mile off. The house itself is raised upon props four or five feet, and the space below is left open for the hogs, with whose charming vocal performance the wearied traveler is serenaded the whole night long.'"

An Englishman with wife and child goes from Albany to Niagara Falls. The cheapest conveyance he could get cost him one hundred and fifteen dollars, and they arrived "half skinned" from the journey.

Yet it is neither the slowness, discomfort or expense of this early traveling which tests most fully the improvement. It is rather *the safety*. Arfedson wrote in 1832

"A traveler intending to proceed thence (from Augusta, S. C.,) by land to New Orleans is earnestly recommended to bid adieu to all comforts on leaving Augusta, and make the necessary preparations for a hard and rough campaign. If he has a wife and children unprovided for, and to whom he has not the means of leaving a suitable legacy, let him by all means be careful to insure his life to the highest amount the office will take."

In 1834-5 Miss Martineau found steamboat traveling in the West extremely dangerous:

"I was rather surprised at the cautions I received throughout the South about choosing wisely among the Mississippi steamboats;

and at the question gravely asked, as I was going on aboard, whether I had a life-preserver with me. I found that all my acquaintances on board had furnished themselves with life-preservers, and my surprise ceased when we passed boat after boat on the river delayed or deserted on account of some accident."

No man who ever came to us had more scientific caution in his statements than Sir Charles Lyell. As late as 1850, on his second journey of investigation, he said:

"After comparing the risk it seems to be more dangerous to travel by land, in a new country, than by river steamers, and some who have survived repeated journeyings in stage-coaches show us many scars. The judge who escorted my wife to Natchez informed her that he had been upset no less than thirteen times."

I purposely select this test, because we are at last being shocked into some sense of social disgrace by the monthly horrors of our railway butcheries.

Our accident list is now as inexcusable as it is appalling, but man for man and mile for mile, travel is far safer than in the year 1800, and in the half century that followed. Until within a generation, there seems to have been no general public sensitiveness whatever as to these dangers. This growth of sensitiveness to what is cruel or socially harmful, seems to me fundamental. But first let us select from the witnesses other hints at least of the conditions of a larger individual and social life.

There are many perfectly trustworthy comments to show us the rise of wages that lifts the whole standard of comfort in the community. The builders of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal in 1829 imported workmen for twelve dollars a month. The employers who paid the passage got in addition three months' labor for nothing. There are now classes of Italian workmen among us who earn enough in six months to make it worth while to pay their own passage twice across the Atlantic, and leave in their pockets more than these laborers of 1829 got in the whole year. In 1907, I found Italians in a California quarry earning $4.00 and $5.00 daily for less than nine hours work.

At the present moment Italians are on strike in New

York for more *per hour* than they got in South Italy *per day*, and for nearly three times as much as Chevalier found Irishmen at work for in 1834. This careful economist says he found a good deal of the hardest work done for sixty cents a day. At about this time women in the Lowell mills worked from five o'clock in the morning till seven at night for fifty cents a day. As compared with English wages, Godley finds even this surprisingly high.

In 1834 there was a strike among the men doing the heavy work on Philadelphia wharves. They worked from six to six. I cannot learn what they asked, but when the employers met, they offered one dollar a day for work from sunrise to sunset. The men accepted it. Carpenters were paid there one dollar and a quarter for ten hours work. In a small country town in New Hampshire I cannot now get a local carpenter for less than two dollars and fifty cents for nine hours.

I have seen Slovak peasants doing work about our rolling-mills for $1.50 per day who never get beyond thirty cents in their own country and for nearly half the year received less than twenty-five cents.

From Seattle to Los Angeles one finds plenty of Orientals whose daily wage at home had been less than twenty cents. They land in Americanized Hawaii where they soon receive eighteen dollars a month. As they pass to Oregon and California they are found working for $35, $40, and $50 a month.

Thirty years ago in the South, a Frenchman notes that negroes who can be said to be "emerging" are receiving forty cents a day. The larger constructive industry like the railways is now tempting them from the old agricultural standards with wages at least twice and often three times as high as in 1870. This higher wage is much more than a material thing. It is the open door to freedom from desperate and slavish indebtedness to the truck-store.

The year 1834 is I think the time when men agitating

for ten hours in Boston were said to be "agitators." The city authorities refused to allow them to have a hall even to discuss the issue before the public. In 1835 the bakers in Philadelphia struck against working "more than eighteen hours a day." There was also a strike of sewing women against a wage scale that was not one-half the lowest price I have ever known to be paid in a present day sweatshop, namely, from seventy-two cents to one dollar and twelve cents *per week*.

Of the poorer workmen, McMasters says:

"Their houses were meaner, their food coarser, their wages were, despite the depreciation that has gone on in the value of money, lower by one-half than at present. A man who performed what would now be called unskilled labor, who sawed wood, who dug ditches, who mended roads, who mixed mortar, who carried boards to the carpenter and bricks to the mason or helped to cut hay in harvest-time, usually received as the fruit of his daily toil two shillings."

The man who "mixed mortar" and "carried bricks to the mason" is now called a hod carrier. Within sight of where I am now writing a building is going up. Every hod-carrier gets daily three dollars and works but eight hours. In 1825, this class was getting seventy-five cents for a twelve-hour day.

The usual reply to this is, "But they could then buy so much more for their money!" The statement is not true. Rent and a very narrow range of foods were then, of course, far cheaper, but today the average workman demands and gets for his expenditure at least ten things where he then got two. Including these, he gets far more for his money. A large part of his house-furnishings, as well as foods for the table, did not then exist. It is to this far better housing and improved variety of diet that another step in progress for the masses of the people is clearly seen in these critical records.

Among the few best tests of social bettering, what is fairer than the *health* of the community?

It would weary the reader, if I were to put down a tithe of the opinions on health and its conditions in the United States during the first decades of the last century. It is only the recent critic who comments on the health of the American woman. Until the present generation it was as common to discourse on our ill health (this chiefly of the women) as to note the use of the rocking chair. The philosopher, Volney, is very curious about it and studies our diet and habits of eating, drinking, effects of climate, etc., to account for the phenomenon. He does not distinguish between the men and the women. His conclusion is in these words: "I will venture to say that if a prize were proposed for the scheme of a regimen most calculated to injure the stomach, the teeth, and the health in general, no better could be invented than that of the Americans." The acute Chastellux says that above all other people we "heap indigestions one on another," and "to the poor relaxed and wearied stomach, they add Madeira, rum, French brandy, gin or malt spirits, which complete the ruin of the nervous system."

James Sterling reaches this conclusion as to the cause of such prevailing ill health as he found: "The deepest rooted cause of American disease is the overworking of the brain and the over-excitement of the nervous system."

A Russian diplomatist, P. I. Poletika, here in 1810, 1811, 1812, and again in 1818, published an excellent book "Apercu." He has great admiration for the young American women, but says they are so delicate (*"si frèle et si passagère"*) that they seem on the edge of invalidism. He attributes the lack of health to our climate.*

Alexander Mackay in 1846 says of our women: "They are, in the majority of cases, over delicate and languid; a defect chiefly superinduced by their want of exercise."

These among scores. Nor need we trust in this to foreign sightseers. There is plenty of undeniable testimony

*Page 154.

Robert Fulton's first experiment with paddle wheels, in the summer of 1779 on the Conestoga.

Fitch's Steamboat on the Delaware River, 1786. Philadelphia in the background.

Railroad Scene in 1842.

"nervous strain" play their part, but it is also true that the meager family income could not supply an adequate and various diet. Ignorance about such diet, as about all sanitary measures was no less a cause. That the standard of vigor has improved in the sixty years since Sir Charles Lyell's comments is about as certain as that our population has increased.

Inseparable from this health improvement of the women, is the observed improvement in the speaking voice. One could easily collect a thick volume on the disagreeable quality of the American voice. Among all the earlier visitors, there is not the least disagreement on this point. There is much wonder as to the causes that can have brought this about. Climate is oftenest mentioned. Also "nervous strain and consequent depression." The necessity of straining the voice in "calling for men folk to come to dinner." The women, it is said thus get a harsh quality which was imitated by the children. "Incipient catarrh," "prevailing

stomach trouble," "constant hurrying and anxiety," are other guesses. All the causes are beyond our knowledge, but it is, I believe, fairly clear that some generations of nervous ill health (especially among the women and imitation by the children) goes far to account for this lack of resonance and sweetness in "the American voice." Miss Martineau grieves much over this defect and is one of the few to trace it to ill health. She says:

"A great unknown pleasure remains to be experienced by the Americans in the well-modulated, gentle, healthy, cheerful voices of women. It is incredible that there should not, in all the time to come, be any other alternative than that which now exists, between a whine and a twang. When the *health* of the American women improves, their voices will improve."*

Two recent critics express surprise that they find everywhere in the United States so many people with a speaking tone "as agreeable as anywhere in Europe." They speak of it as beginning and extending, not yet as commonly prevailing. It is very recent that we were conscious enough of the blemish to admit its existence. Foreign travel, the presence of certain nationalities among our immigrants, the teaching of singing and voice-training in the schools, have so far aroused this recognition that the way to its healing slowly opens before us. We shall soon have sense enough to "standardize" voice quality: first of all for teachers. No teacher with a harsh, nasal or "complaining" voice should be allowed to enter a school-room.† A little later we shall not allow boys with snarling or grating tones to shout their wares on the railroad train or to hawk papers in the streets.

There was much truth in a sentence just written in a London paper by an English teacher: "About one-half the Americans use tones that make you shiver. They will be shamed out of this only by hearing a pleasant voice long enough to feel the unpleasantness of their own."

Two college girls from New England lived a year in

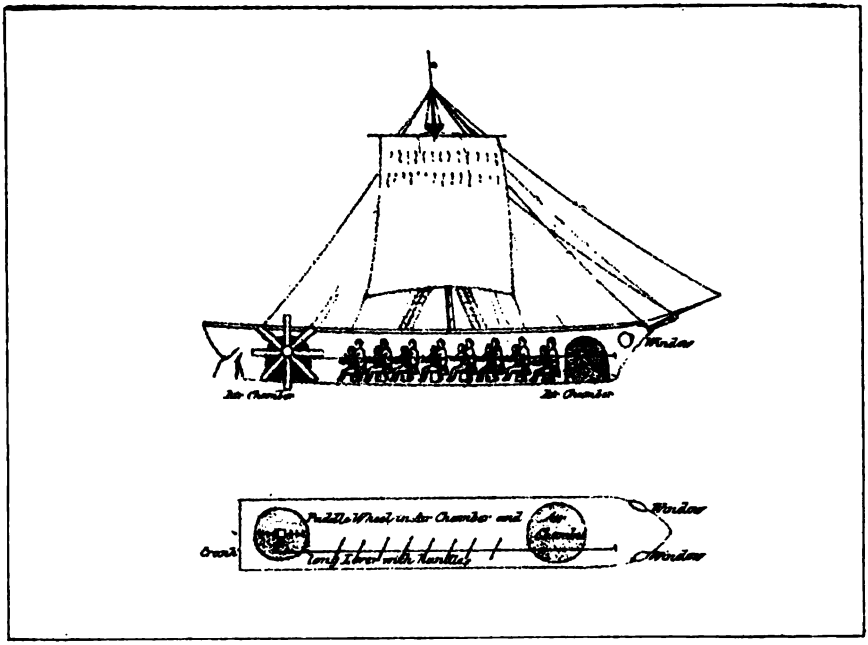
*"Society in America," Vol. II, p. 200.
†I am told that this has already a definite beginning.

Spain. One of them says, "When I came home, at least one-half of my own friends spoke so that I wanted to put my hands to my ears. Yet I had never for an instant noticed this, until I had been surrounded by people for some months whose voice was a positive pleasure to the ear." This illustrates one precious lesson our critics have helped to teach us. We were "taking it in" even when we were hotly abusing our instructors. Dickens' brilliant caricature left its lesson for improved prison methods and for better manners. Even the saucy Mrs. Trollope, whose every page left a smart, actually modified some of our habits. Men who sprawled in their shirt sleeves in a theater box, or thrust a foot over the railing in the gallery, about 1840, often heard the word, "Trollope!" "Trollope!" shouted in the audience. All knew amidst the laughter what it meant. Much in these criticisms entered into our common thought and helped to form that self criticism which makes the better possible.

Most of the hardest strictures concern frailties and imperfections that are easily accounted for by the newness, the narrowness, or the hard physical difficulties in the surrounding life. It was usually the point of the unsympathetic critic that our character and institutions were such that we could not free ourselves from the disorders.

It is a very different sign, but not less favorable, that so many of the early students of America believed that our democracy as a form of government chokes and hinders *opportunity* for the growth of higher, disinterested faculties. Science, art, letters, all the graces and real distinctions of civilization were as they tell us under baleful handicap, because we were committed to a democracy.

In nothing has the tone of the critic undergone profounder change than as regards this same word opportunity;—opportunity for the highest as well as for the commonest. St. Gaudens, the sculptor, has finished his work and foreign artists are telling us that, with the exception



The *Mute*, early submarine boat.

of the French Rodin, the American had no superior in the world. Sir Robert Ball, the Astronomer-Royal of Ireland, recently left us. He is reported as saying that no higher astronomical work is done in Europe than here. In 1830 it was written of us: "They have neither made any music nor do they show the slightest appreciation of it. Even their 'Yankee Doodle' and 'Hail Columbia' were not written by Yankees."

The French composer, Saint-Saens, was last year in this country. "Before I came here," he says, "people told me a great many unpleasant things about the New World. 'You won't like America,' they said. 'Everything over there will shock you and grate upon your artistic sensibilities.'" He now reports (not for the American interviewer, but in the Paris *Figaro*) his delight and surprise: "Everywhere

I found excellent orchestras—everywhere excellent conductors."*

Mr. Bryce's tribute to our higher education as on a level with the best that Europe offers is in the same key.

If opportunity, as an inspirer of faculty, be made the test of progress, we gladly accept it. The present-day voyager is indeed the first to use it in the larger sense, as characteristic of this country. "If you ask me," says one, "in what the United States differs from Europe, one word expresses it 'Opportunity.'" One entitles a chapter "The Land of Opportunity." A Socialist friend is very impatient with what he calls "all this fine talk about opportunity" in this country. Have we not sixty thousand tramps, gruesome poverty and all the shame of the sweatshop and child labor? Yes, far too much of this shame is ours, but "opportunity" is a relative term. What land or people offers more to a larger part of its inhabitants? The world's practical judgment about this has to be taken. Since our story began, some twenty-five million of people at a good deal of risk and sacrifice have left their homes to come here. They came from all parts of the world and the pressure increases from year to year. It increases because those who have tried the country, write back to their friends to follow them. The chief cause of immigration is the story which those continue to tell who have put the chances here to trial. No more final test is conceivable than this, that (as compared to other countries) the world's millions have found it, and still find it, the land of opportunity. An English Consul long in this country, says the charge of the English that the Irish are shiftless and ineffective at their tasks in Ireland has much truth, but he adds, "The moment the Irishman touches American soil, he works, and works with the best of them, because all sorts of chances open out to him and his children."

*The title of a German book is "The Land of Limitless Opportunity."

Now, what more than this same "opportunity" enters into and constitutes a people's hopefulness, courage, and happiness? If we are careful in our thought to add to the fact of economic opportunity, the fact of the rapidly growing *educational* opportunity, hopeful chances never were greater in our history than now—I mean, for a larger proportion of the population.

Many who admit this are likely to add, "But this opportunity is closing up, it will soon be at an end." No prophecy at the time it is spoken can be disproved, but the pages of our critics contain a great deal of testimony that bears directly on the point. Decade by decade through the century, our visitors are stoutly assured by the best informed Americans, that the limit of assimilating immigrants has been reached. "It must be stopped or the Republic is at an end." This gloomy view held stiffly in 1825; it was rampant when de Tocqueville and Miss Martineau were here; it reached a crisis of alarm in 1840. "America," says one, "is always going to the devil, but never gets there." Yes, it has always been going to the devil, because of *something*. It is worth while to note some of these ever-impending calamities.

Most of the first visitors heard from conservative and leading citizens that the President was to become a "despot" or "the slave of foreign potentates;" that the Senate was sure to become an oligarchy, because it sat six years and was not elected directly by the people; that the central government would swallow up the states or intimidate them by the army; even the House of Representatives would be made up of the rich and would tyrannize over the people; the small states would be at odds with the large states and lose their sovereign rights; Rhode Island could not maintain itself against New York. Bryce says of these dark misgivings, "Not one has proved true." There were many fears because of the size of our country. In a small democracy, it was said, you may extend power to the peo-

ple, because the area of the problem is under control. With the vast domain of the United States, the interests will be so diverse and so conflicting that the factional spirit cannot be held in restraint. Bryce says very definitely that this factional unrest has, as a fact, "proved less intense over the large area of the Union than it did in the Greek republics of antiquity;—today the demon of faction is less powerful in the parties than at any previous date since the so-called Era of Good Feeling in 1820."

Again, we were to be hopelessly vacillating in our foreign policy. Democracy, it was said, is "like a drunken man on horseback, falling now on this side, now on that." But Bryce will not even admit that, at our worst, we outdid most monarchies. "Royal caprice, or the influence of successive favorites, has proved more pernicious in absolute monarchies than popular fickleness in republics." With more conviction still, he says of our later years that "the foreign policy of the United States has been singularly consistent." This criticism, that we should be feeble and inadequate in foreign policy, was repeated and believed until the very close of the nineteenth century. But when commanding necessities came upon us, the man equipped for the new exigencies appeared in John Hay. We were told at his death by a foreign diplomat that in the whole field of world politics Mr. Hay had no superior. I heard it predicted that his successor could not be found. Elihu Root did not have to be found, he was at hand.

Another dire prediction was that with so many states, dangerous and irresponsible experiments would be tried. Especially would states here and there legislate against private property, putting the whole basis of society in peril. We now see that this very experimental feature of state legislation has proved to be an advantage, and as for the perils to private property, Bryce finds the prediction wholly false.

Basil Hall was told that the rock on which we were to

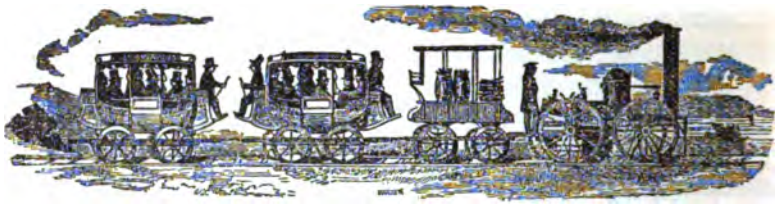
split was the change in our inheritance laws whereby all the children get their equal share, instead of the oldest son getting it all. This was to destroy the saving social influence of the family and property. This fear now sounds to us merely funny.

Giving equality of rights to women (first appearing in the youth of Lucy Stone) was also an innovation sure to introduce "a conflict of interests—a lack of family unity—that no society could stand." Woman has not won a right or an equality that has not stood for progress.

That the Church should be separated from the State was another fatal step to bring in ruin. For more than a generation our visitors were told that the catastrophe always close at hand, is the presence of Roman Catholics.

I once had occasion to ask an aged man, whom his fellow citizens counted as one of their wisest, some question about our social difficulties. When he had given his opinion, he added, "I suppose I am the more hopeful because my seventy years of pretty clear memory cover so many 'shipwrecks of the Republic.' My father was a hard-headed man and nothing was more impressed upon my youth by him and his friends who came to us, than the absolutely certain destruction of our government by the Catholics. I have lived to see that every one of their alarms was an entirely false one. As this has been true of a great many other scares, I have got into a pretty comfortable frame of mind about this country." He added, "Of course, something awful may happen tomorrow, but I am going to let the other man do the worrying." I use this because, better than any words of mine, it sums up the century of testimony on the approaching evils that were to overwhelm us.

De Toqueville saw an impending peril from the growing "tyranny of the majority." How brilliantly he proved this! We now see that the proof had one defect—it wasn't true. How often it has been a glowering "Cæsarism" close



The first locomotive to be run on the Mohawk Valley Railroad.

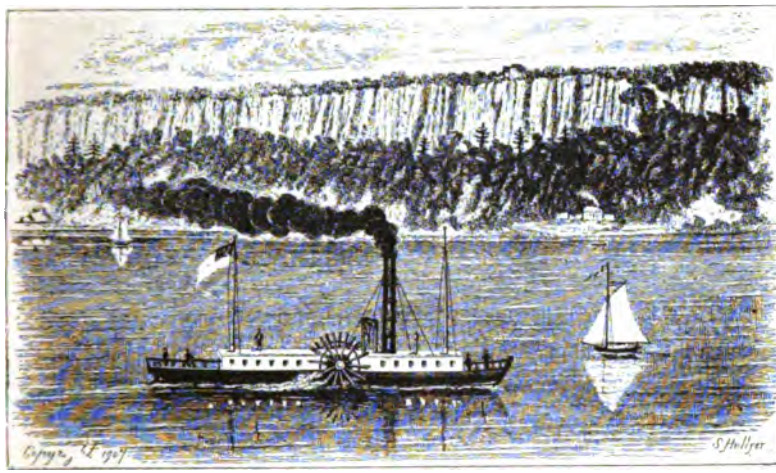
at hand. Bryce notices this and thus writes, "Cæsarism is the last danger to menace America."

That before the death of George Washington, de Warville should see our doom in the "ravages of luxury" already rampant, sounds as droll to us, as that a great number of enlightened people believed the Republic in immediate danger because of that very innocent society of the Cincinnati, or as the fears expressed to Miss Martineau, because *young men were leaving the cities for the country districts.* The "decay of religion" was, of course, at all times working our early ruin.

Another form which the fear took was the certainty of "disrupting religious quarrels" because of the increase of Protestant sects. The Catholic Professor Klein comes here to find us so tolerant in this respect as to set a splendid example to the world. He wishes France could imitate us.

It should calm us a little that so many people in the first half of the last century were dejected about the "servant question." There has not been a decade since Colonial times in which this frowning difficulty has not seemed to multitudes of home keepers a despairing problem.* "The increase of intemperance" is another spectre constantly appearing in our story. A long chapter would be insufficient to show the clear and impressive evidence that, however in-

*The work of the servant a century ago is thus depicted: "She mended the clothes, she did up the ruffs, she ran errands from one end of the town to the other, she milked the cows, made the butter, walked ten blocks for a pail of water, spun flax for the family linen and when the year was up received ten pounds (50 dollars) for her wages."



First trip of Fulton's Steamboat to Albany, 1807.

temperate we now are, the improvement in drinking habits is beyond a doubt.

There is one more shape which our early undoing takes on that is perhaps more instructive and more encouraging than any other. It is the agitated feeling for more than a generation that we could not possibly survive the growth of "sectional hatreds." It is a feat of the "sympathetic imagination" quite beyond us of today to appreciate what these sectional hatreds and jealousies were in the first forty years with which our criticisms deal. No opera bouffe could outdo many of these sober records of sectional spite. Trevelyan shows what this local prejudice meant among our soldiers in the Revolution. A military patriot from New Jersey gives his opinion of the corrupting influence of Pennsylvania soldiers. They would, he says, "be *pejorated* by having been fellow soldiers with that discipline-hating, good-living-loving, to eternal fame damned, coxcombical crew we lately had from Philadelphia." This English historian adds that this amiable communication was from no less a man

than General Livingston and that it "was one among a hundred others which betoken a condition of feeling productive of endless scandal and immeasurable danger."

I had to look through a good many of our own history books in the effort to confirm the dire opinions which travelers record about these geographical animosities.* They record so many of them that only the briefest illustrations can here be given. One reports the President of Harvard College (the historian Sparks) as "much dispirited on account of California and her attitude." In a letter to de Tocqueville he writes, "Where will this end and how are such accessions and discordant materials to be held together in a confederated republic?" Marryat gives these "acrid jealousies" as a reason why a traveler cannot trust a bit of evidence that he gets in one part of the country about any other part of it. "The people of Connecticut will not allow that there is anything commendable or decent in New York." The German, F. J. Grund, is so impressed by this that he falls into a speculative nightmare. Through these prophetic mists he sees in the near future our collapse as a nation. He says: "I imagined myself somewhere near the Hudson or the Delaware in the midst of a large flourishing city, besieged, stormed, and finally carried by a victorious Western army."† It was against the playing upon these sectional discords that Webster spoke his great words, "There are no Alleghenies in my politics."

That we have grown in those integrities that constitute progress is not wholly proved by the kind of testimony just given. But it is a history of doubting and fearful opinions which we may read with a good deal of wholesome instruction and encouragement.

Such weight as this story of pessimistic apprehension possesses, we must take over into the final chapter. We shall see there the bearing of what our critics reveal on the gravest dangers to Democracy.

*See, for example, "American Revolution," Vol. II, p. 196.
†"Aristocracy in America," Francis J. Grund, London, 1839.

The Story of American Painting*

VII. Contemporary Figure Painting

By George Breed Zug.

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THE present chapter is intended to show something of the development of figure painting in the United States and to point out some of its recent tendencies. What is meant by figure painting? What is figure painting *per se* in distinction from the use of the human figure in the portrait, the religious, the historical, the mural painting? By tacit understanding the word has come to be applied to all canvases which cannot be classified under one of the above mentioned heads, but in which the human figure is a prominent element. Since the beginnings of art the human figure has been the subject most often depicted. Landscape, which supposedly might have been a close rival is, in fact, of itself a very modern subject after having served for centuries as a mere accessory to the portrait, the religious, and the historical picture.

During our Colonial and Revolutionary periods and even well beyond the middle of the nineteenth century, figure

*The series on American Painting will be concluded in the May issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The articles heretofore printed are: "Foreword" and "Painting in the Colonies" (September); "The Period of the Revolution" (October); "The Years of Preliminary Growth" (November); "Formative Influences" (December); "The Development of Landscape and Marine Painting" (February); "Modern Portrait Painting" (March).

painting, except in the form of the portrait and of the historical composition, was devoted to "ideal" subjects, the characters of which were drawn chiefly from Greek or Roman story, from the Bible, and occasionally from English literature. There flourished also a certain sentimental type of Bible illustration and the pietistic allegory. (For example see West's "Hagar and Ishmael" and Copley's "Venus, Mars, and Vulcan" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Sept., '07, pp. 68 and 73. See also Trumbull's "Death of Hector," CHAUTAUQUAN, Oct., '07, p. 222, and Huntington's "Mercy's Dream" in the present number.)

The latter picture is a good example of our bygone conception of figure painting. This is, however, a remarkably good piece of work for the time. It is well composed and pleasing in color. But its harsh contrasts of light and dark, its smooth and shining surface, its heavy shadows as well as its general conception stamp it as belonging to a past period in our artistic growth.

During the first century and a half of American Art, both landscape and figure painters sought to embody in their pictures ideas which would make for spirituality as well as culture. Their purpose was not "to portray a corner of nature as seen through a temperament," but to elevate the mind by the depiction of subjects supposed to be high and noble. The appeal of art was then a moral rather than a purely esthetic appeal. These artists learned their technique from the old Italian masters by way of the English painters, or else from the Dutch and Flemish by way of the modern Germans. The result produced unreality both in subject and in treatment. Because of this it may not be out of place to mention here some definite points in regard to execution or technique which may help the reader to discern a little more clearly our progress in the figure arts during the last generation.

The art of painting has to do with visual images; and just as literary art has its language composed of letters, words, and sentences, so graphic art has its own language,

the elements of which are lines, color-spots of varying dullness or brightness, and masses of light or dark, all arranged with a definite purpose on a flat surface, and intended to reproduce more or less truthfully the appearance of the natural world. In order to understand and appreciate pictures, it is necessary to learn to observe these elements of the language of art.

First, observe in all pictures the success or lack of success of the artist in rendering the form of objects. Ask yourself if the painter whose work is before you, so defines by lines the human figure that it answers to the anatomical proportions of a real man or woman. Are the features shaped like those of real people? Are the legs and arms joined naturally to the body in the figures of the painting before you? Are the limbs, head, and body of each figure related to one another as naturally in the picture as in real life? Are the proportions correct?

Here it should be remembered that the question of anatomical accuracy is not the only one. There is another: is the result beautiful? Many painters, especially those of the older schools of art, have deliberately changed the shape and proportions of the human figure in order to give beauty or rhythm of line. This was done by Botticelli.

The human figure, moreover, cannot be adequately represented by outlines which merely define the body. The artist must suggest on his flat canvas the solid substance, the three dimensions of the body. This he does by modelling; by the use of light and shade within the limits of the figure. By modelling we here refer to what in our school days we called "shading." By means of modelling the artist indicates the solid substance, the rotundity of the figure and its undulations of surface. Notice in a picture whether the modelling does actually suggest the substance and form of a figure and remember that here again an artist may increase or diminish the amount of shading or modelling in nature for a distinct artistic purpose, to make the figure harmonize with the rest of the picture. There is,

also, a broader meaning to light and shade, a meaning that refers to the disposition of masses of light and masses of shade over all parts of the picture; notice again the brightness of the sky of the natural world and the relation of that brightness, or luminosity, to the amount of dark in a nearby object.

We refer to the relation of the amount of light and dark reflected by certain objects in nature; a cloud in the sky, a rock in the foreground, if you are looking out of doors. If you are indoors observe the brightness of the sky seen through a window as compared to the darkness of a shadow under the table. This relation of lights to darks over the whole face of nature is referred to by painters as "values" and must find some corresponding rendering in the art of painting. Some of the old masters present scenes with an even distribution of light and with practically no shadows. Others, for example Leonardo da Vinci and Rembrandt, seem consciously to exaggerate the contrasts of light and dark which they see in nature so that they represent a bright spot of light on a face or figure contrasting strongly with dark shadow on all sides. This is an artistic hyperbole: an artificial use of light and shade employed for a conscious artistic purpose. In most of the older schools of painting, the artists did not seem to strive for imitation of the values (*i. e.*, the relations of light and dark) of nature, but rather for the use of lights and darks in an arbitrary and artificial way. Perhaps the best of the old masters in this matter of values were the Venetians, and the Dutchmen of the seventeenth century. Our early American painters of both figure and landscape founded their methods on the works of European masters who are remarkably artificial in their values, as well as in their drawing and modelling.

Hence you will observe in the works of our early painters, harsh contrasts in light and shade that are contrary to nature, just as you will observe stiffness and unreality in drawing and lack of delicacy in modelling. (See most

The Questioner of the Sphinx, by Elihu Vedder.

Mercy's Dream, by Daniel Huntington. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

"So when that Angel of the darker Drink
At last shall find you by the river-brink—"
An Illustration for Omar Khayyám by Elihu Vedder.

A Quartette, by William T. Dannat. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

The Ameya, or Itinerant Candy Vender, by Robert T. Blum.
In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

The Temple of the Winds, by Louis Loeb. In the Metropolitan Musem of Art, New York.

The Last Voyage, by E. L. Weeks. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

In the Garden, by George De Forest Brush. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Caritas, by Abbott Thayer. In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

Mother and Child, by George De Forest Brush. In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

The Seer, by Sargeant Kendall. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Aurora, by Will H. Low. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art. New York.

A Cozy Corner, by F. D. Millet. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

The Coppersmith, by Edgar M. Ward, in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

The Caress, by Mary Cassatt.

Allegro, by Frederick Ballard Williams. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

El Jaleo, by John S. Sargent. In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

Across the Common, by Charles Sprague Pearce. In the Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo.

of the illustrations for these articles on American Painting in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, October, November, and December.) Notice also the darkness and opacity of their shadows as compared with the lightness, brightness, and transparency of the shadows in real nature and in the best modern painting. Consequent upon this attempt to reproduce nature there is a strong tendency in all modern art towards a lighter and brighter tone of color. Painters of the present day have also become especially interested in the actual handling of paint, that is, in brush work, in order to suggest by the size and shape of the brush marks, the texture of the object represented.*

Composition has meanwhile been growing less and less formal, more and more unstudied. The subject need no longer be the ideal or the heroic. A "Girl and Cow" (see illustration of the painting by Theodore Robinson, CHAUTAUQUAN, Dec., 1907, p. 65) has become as fitting a subject for the artist's brush as "Mercy's Dream," and the Mother and Child (see Miss Cassatt's painting reproduced in this number) has been deemed as worthy of high artistic skill as the Madonna and Christ Child of the old masters. In the light of these introductory remarks, we may indicate some recent tendencies in our figure painting.

Elihu Vedder, born in 1838, found his artistic inspiration in Rome, and he is the "noblest Roman of them all." Though he studied in Paris in 1856, he was in Italy in 1857-61, and since 1867 he has made his home in Rome. He is a painter, sculptor, and illustrator, a man of high ideals, and ceaseless energy. His work in oil is of the old school, with low tones, dark shadows, and lack of atmosphere. He has never been preëminently interested in technique, in the art of painting for its own sake. Above all

* For the best brief definitions of art terms known to the writer, see The Century Dictionary. For discussions of drawing, modelling, values, brush work, and other technical matters, see John C. Van Dyke's "Art for Art's Sake" (Scribner). For a helpful passage on light and shade, see H. R. Poore's "Pictorial Composition" (Baker & Taylor Co.), pp. 151-174.

a draughtsman, his greatest work is the matchless series of illustrations for Fitzgerald's Omar Khayyám (published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). There are in these plates a majesty in composition, a precision of line, a depth of mystery, which happily interpret the text of the poem, and which the artist has never excelled in his later work. In Bowdoin College and in the Congressional Library he has mural decorations which are likewise marked by a sense of mystery, a high seriousness, and significant interpretation which deserve highest praise.

The tendency towards realism in light, atmosphere, and color which has been noted, was the outcome of the French training which since the sixties and the early seventies has been sought by American students. The pioneers in this movement to France were Inness, Hunt, and LaFarge. This is not the place to discuss the works of any of these painters, all of whom proved to be important influences.

About 1875 and 1876 there returned to America a number of young men thoroughly trained in the methods of the French school, and prepared to prove the worth of that training. When in 1877 the Society of American Artists was founded with Mr. John LaFarge as president these "younger men" were among the first and most influential members. Some of them were Louis C. Tiffany, J. Alden Weir, William M. Chase, J. H. Twachtman, Abbott H. Thayer, Francis Lathrop, and Will H. Low. Their ranks were soon swelled by the addition of such artists as Edwin H. Blashfield, George de Forest Brush, Robert F. Blum, Kenyon Cox, George W. Maynard, Frank D. Millet, Eastman Johnson, Douglas Volk, George Fuller, Thomas Hovenden, Theodore Robinson, and others. Some of these men were trained in Germany or elsewhere, but it was always the "new" training which they had had and by far the larger number received it in Paris.

The French school has always been academic; nearly all its chief masters have been inclined to agree with Ingres in his dictum that "the probity of art is drawing."

It is a school of style, a school that bases its teachings on the Greeks and the Florentines. Yet, during the third quarter of the nineteenth century, there was combined with the impeccable drawing and careful balance of a somewhat academic kind, a decided inclination to study more carefully than ever before the appearances of nature, as regards form and local color. Will H. Low, a pupil in the Ecole des Beaux Arts under Gérôme, and Carolus-Duran, is a good example of the result of purely academic training. His "Aurora," which we reproduce, represents the careful drawing, the thin painting, the smooth surface and the lack of feeling that is a frequent result of the training of the Ecole des Beaux Arts. With Mr. Low the subject is not so very different from that of our earlier painters, but the execution is far subtler and more refined. A large group of men could be named who, like Mr. Low, settled in New York and have practised with success an art as distinctly academic as his. Some of them have been mentioned above. It remains only to emphasize the importance of the names of E. H. Blashfield, H. Siddons Mowbray, and Kenyon Cox. These three have filled important positions as teachers in art schools of New York, and all three have been prominent among the mural painters. But Kenyon Cox, who has done much figure work, which is not mural, may be taken as one of our best representatives of academicism in America. His delicate and impeccable draughtmanship judging it from its own point of view, for precision and subtlety, can hardly be matched outside of Paris.

T. W. Dewing, a pupil in Paris of Boulanger and Lefebvre, who became a member of the New York group, chooses for his themes women, American women frequently arrayed in flowing evening garments and placed alone or in groups in dimly lighted interiors. Though trained by the strictest of academicians, Mr. Dewing has developed a refined and subtle style, marked by great beauty of tone, depth and harmony of color and effects of atmospheric poetry that speak for an unusually poetic style.

The question as to appropriate subject has been answered in another and eloquent way by Abbott H. Thayer. Everyone knows his ideal dreams of American womanhood. His lovely women are painted on larger canvases than are the dainty apparitions of Dewing; and in a very different and more intimate way. They are more personal and at the same time more human. That Mr. Thayer is a master of light and air effects, of brush work and all the subtleties of modern workmanship, is perhaps shown or at least suggested by our reproduction of his noble painting "Caritas." Very broadly painted is this and noble in conception.

His contemporary, George DeForest Brush, was also an early member of the Society of American Artists. After his return from his Parisian studies under Gérôme, he produced for some years very notable paintings of American Indians, paintings which did not perhaps show the consummate craftsmanship of some of his associates, but which did, however, adequately and beautifully interpret the red man to his white brethren. It was not long, however, till Brush began to paint that series of portrait groups which has made his name familiar. In the many pictures of his wife and children, two of which are here reproduced, he presents us with what is very nearly a portrait group, but which is really a sort of modern madonna. How various are the attitudes of mother and of babies in these pictures, and how beautifully does his drawing render the turn of a wrist, the bend of a head, the shadow of a smile. He is precision itself, clarity and purity, a worthy successor of his master Gérôme.

Sergeant Kendall, a young man, also a distinguished portrait painter, was a pupil of that sturdy realist, Thomas Eakins of Philadelphia and afterwards of Merson in Paris. He, too, like Brush excels in the delicate rendering of twentieth century madonnas. He is remarkably successful in interpreting the fleeting expression on children's faces as may be seen in our illustration.

Another painter of great distinction who is, however,

entirely unconnected with the artists we have just passed in review, may be mentioned here in connection with the modern treatment of the theme of motherhood. Miss Mary Cassatt was born in Pittsburg, Pa., but she early went to Paris, became a pupil of Manet, and was soon closely associated with Monet, Pisarro, and others of the French Impressionist group. This circle of friends started one of the most interesting movements of modern art.. They might well be called "Luminarists" instead of Impressionists, since one of their chief aims was the painting not merely of light but of sunlight (the very light of the sun itself). But the subject of impressionism may best be taken up in connection with the landscape painters who show most sympathy with that movement. Miss Cassatt's method of painting and her point of view are very similar to that of the group just mentioned. She is one of our most distinguished painters who has for years interpreted the modern French madonna and child with a subtle and refined method. She is also distinguished for her dry points of the French peasantry.

William T. Dannat, a contemporary of Thayer and of others who have just been mentioned, studied in the Munich Academy and with Munkacsy. When he was in the student period, the problems of the painting of atmosphere and light were occupying the minds of all his fellow workers. He threw into his studies his youthful enthusiasm and in "A Quartet," which we reproduce, he shows himself at his best. But it must be acknowledged that he has not kept up to the standard which he thus set for himself; he still remains in Europe, but has almost ceased to paint. While Dannat remained in Europe and painted Spanish subjects, Robert F. Blum went to Japan and brought home most delicate paintings of the people of that country. Blum was a dainty master, a magician in subtle color schemes, and harmonies of line, as may be seen by his works in the Cincinnati Museum of Fine Arts, or by his two decorations in the concert hall of the Mendelssohn Glee Club, New York.

While Blum and Dannat sought congenial subjects in foreign climes, F. D. Millet painted domestic scenes of the early years of our country and Edwin Lord Weeks was attracted to oriental subjects, which he painted with a romantic feeling for color and atmosphere.

Space forbids much more than the mere mention of one who is today the most distinguished master of the figure among our artists resident in Europe, Mr. Gari Melchers. The exhibition of some nineteen of Melchers' paintings in several American cities during the winter of 1906-7 proved to the discerning that his is the most versatile, the most accomplished brush that is held by any of our painters in Europe. In thus placing Gari Melchers in an exalted position, we do not forget the important and original work now being done in Paris by such men as Tanner, Van der Weyden, Hubbell, Maurer, and others.

A recent group of New York painters has been called the Romantic School.* J. Humphreys Johnson, Albert Herter, Bryson Burroughs, and Arthur B. Davies, differing as they do from one another in many ways, show a certain romanticism in temperament and in use of color and of atmospheric effect. The same may be said of the paintings which we reproduce by F. B. Williams and by Louis Loeb. These latter may as fittingly be classed with the painters of landscape as with figure artists.

Finally, to pass over many names of important masters in Chicago, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, and elsewhere, we are unable to close without at least mentioning some of the distinguished painters of the Boston group. These are Joseph de Camp, F. W. Benson, and E. C. Tarbell, three of the most skilled and poetic interpreters of the figure in the United States.

* See Isham's "The History of American Painting," pp. 483-488.

VIII. Contemporary Mural Painting

FROM the period extending from 1824 to 1844 when Trumbull, Leutze, and others were executing their huge historical paintings for the Capitol Building at Washington, nothing worthy of mention as mural decoration was produced in the United States until the years 1876 and 1878. During the latter year William M. Hunt was given the commission for two wall paintings in the Albany Capitol Building.

In the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia may be seen a beautiful canvas by Hunt, a study of "The Flight of Night" (see illustration in December CHAUTAUQUAN, p. 71). For nearly a quarter of a century, so we are told, this oriental idea of Anahita the queen of the night, derived from a Persian poem, had been lurking in Hunt's mind, but he had given to it only incomplete expression. When, therefore, the Albany commission came, this naturally became one of his chosen subjects. The other theme was also a long cherished idea, that of "The Discoverer," Columbus guided across the sea by attendant spirits.

The story of these two, our first really great mural decorations is one of the tragedies of art history. The artist's excessive sincerity made him abjure the present accepted method of wall decoration by means of canvas applied to the wall surface and led him to paint upon the actual stone, thus assuring, as he supposed, the eternal duration of his work. But so badly had this notorious monument of graft been constructed, that in ten years changes necessary to keep the building from becoming a complete wreck had caused the disappearance of his pictures. History goes on to say that the unveiling of his work aroused such enthusiasm that the Albany legislature voted $100,000 to be devoted to other decorations by the same artist. This action was, however, vetoed by the Governor and so great was the artist's consequent disappointment that his death

soon followed—even before fate had overtaken his two great works.

It would be difficult to grant due meed of praise to the more majestic of Hunt's two noble decorative paintings, "The Flight of Night." The vigorous action of the horses as they gallop over the clouds, hardly held in check by the attendant figure, does not disturb the monumental effect of the painting, nor the calm of the goddess of night who is driving them through the heavens. With a large simplicity and dignity of execution which were new on this side of the Atlantic and are still rare, the painting possesses the abstract beauty that reminds one of the noblest art of the Renaissance.

The other memorable, and, fortunately, not so melancholy, date is 1876. It was late in that year when the architect, Mr. H. H. Richardson, was completing Trinity Church, Boston, and offered to John LaFarge, a young artist, who had done some good decorative work in private houses, the wall and roof decoration of the new church. The story of how the artist met the almost insurmountable difficulties of the task with the limitations of time, money, suitable material and skilled helpers reads like one of the Herculean labors.

LaFarge himself said, "I knew that our work at Trinity would have to be faulty but this much I was able to accomplish, that almost every bit of it would be living, would be impossible to duplicate." The result was in fact as someone has said, "Such an artistic effect as had not been seen in this country before." And Trinity still remains a landmark in our art history.

From that time to this Mr. LaFarge has kept on producing work bearing the stamp of fine individuality. Whether his product has been in the form of book illustrations, water-colors, landscapes, easel pictures, stained glass, or mural decorations it has been original in conception and skilled in workmanship. After Trinity followed similar work in churches in New York, Newport, Portland, Maine,

Group of Prophets—Micah, Haggai, Malachi, and Zechariah, by John S. Sargent. From the frieze in the Boston Public Library.

The Ascension, by John LaFarge. In the Church of the Ascension, Fifth Avenue and Tenth Street, New York.

The Halt of the Wise Men, by John LaFarge. In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

Religion, by Charles Sprague Pearce. Mural painting in the Library of Congress.

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Melpomene, the Tragic Muse, by Edward Simmons. Mural painting in Library of Congress.

The Discoverers and Pioneers gathered at the sources of the Mississippi. Mural Painting in State Capitol at St. Paul, by E. H. Blashfield.

The Uses of Wealth, Mural Painting in The Citizens' Savings & Trust Building, Cleveland. By E. H. Blashfield.

Oral Tradition, by John W. Alexander. Mural painting from his series in the Library of Congress, illustrating "The Evolution of the Book."

Copyright by H. G. Douglas.

The Printing Press, by John W. Alexander. Mural painting from his series in the Library of Congress, illustrating "The Evolution of the Book."

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Isabella and the Pot of Basil, by John W. Alexander. In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

and elsewhere, as well as a number of decorations in private houses. In 1876, LaFarge began his experiments with stained glass which have resulted in his becoming the greatest, the most individual, artist in that material which the world has known in modern times.

And now late in life, for he was born in 1835, he seems to have entered on a second period of activity in the art of mural decoration for he has been executing for the Court House at Baltimore and for the State Capitol at St. Paul, mural decorations of great virility, wonderfully rich in color, skilful in composition and original in conception.

Nothing that this artist has done surpasses, however, that masterpiece of his first decorative period, his "Ascension" in the church of the Ascension, New York, which we reproduce. The painting occupies the upper part of the wall behind the chancel. High up on either side a window pierces the clerestory wall, so that the composition is well lighted. Never does the writer go to New York and fail to make a pilgrimage to this holy place. This is not merely a picture well painted, it is a great work of art. The noble figure of Christ, ascending to heaven, appears just above the center of the picture; a choir of angels hovers on either side, and from below His disciples are looking upward at their departing Lord. This is no mundane gathering of draped models carefully posed, no prosaic bit of vulgar realism; it is a painter's vision of a heavenly scene, a great religious painting, not only masterful in execution, but also most reverent in conception.

Among the technical sources of the moving power of this great painting are its circumambient atmosphere, its tone and its color. In every bit of landscape that this artist has produced, in every Samoan water-color as in every stained glass window or mural decoration he has proved himself to be that rarest of masters, rare in every clime, but especially in America, a great colorist.

It remains to be said that with all their other excel-

lences technical and spiritual, Mr. LaFarge's decorations are always functional. As a critic has recently written, "His mural paintings have the unusual quality of adding to, rather than taking from, the solidity of the walls which they invest."

But Mr. LaFarge is not only our greatest decorator, he is the most versatile, most gifted, most accomplished artist of America today; he is a master whose technical achievements, no matter how admirable, always seem trifling in comparison to the spiritual content of his work.

After this brief notice of one who was the pioneer in American mural painting and before we take up some recent tendencies, it may not be amiss to ask the question "What are the conventions of mural decoration? Are there any principles the knowledge of which will help the critical judgment of wall painting? In other words how does a mural painting differ, if at all, from an easel picture? Long ago Ruskin said that the peculiarity of mural decoration as distinguished from the other branches of figure painting is simply that it must be "fitted into place." A small painting placed in a frame and intended to be hung on a wall must be harmonious within its own limits. The mural painting is placed permanently upon the wall. It must therefore share in the character of the wall, it must be wall-like. And in order to attain this end it must have greater simplification in all regards than an easel picture. It must be not only more simplified but also more generalized, more abstract than an easel picture. It must be part and parcel of the architecture. Therefore it must harmonize in design, color, and in effects of light and shade with the size, shape, and color of the room in which it is placed, with the architectural character of the whole room, and with the architectural details juxtaposed to it.. It must in a word be functional, be architectonic.*

*See "Mural Painting," an article by Edwin H. Blashfield in "A Dictionary of Architecture and Building" (R. Sturgis, ed), 3 vols. Macmillan, 1901, Vol. 2, pp. 981-997. The writer acknowledges his indebtedness to this scholarly essay of Mr. Blashfield.

One of the remarkable characteristics of the decorations by Hunt and LaFarge which have been mentioned is their appropriateness, their functional character, and yet historians of our mural decoration note that the work of LaFarge in Trinity Church and of Hunt in Albany was looked upon not "as the commencement of a new Movement, but as something extraordinary," "probably to be confined to the two artists in question." Meanwhile men were doing good work as illustrators, as painters of landscape and figure so that when in 1892 there came the call for a band of decorators for the Columbian Exposition men were equipped to aid in the realization of the White City.*

From that year to this interest in the matter of mural decoration has been growing as surely and steadily as have public taste and a general love of the beautiful and though the White City was ephemeral, other and lasting shrines of beauty arose with the Boston Public Library and the Congressional Library at Washington.

Edwin A. Abbey's series of paintings representing the story of the Holy Grail, and the famous Prophets by John S. Sargent in the Boston Public Library have been recognized very widely as important contributions to mural decoration in America.

Sargent is a painter who stands somewhat apart from the American movement for mural decoration. He has been living for many years in England and though preëminently a portrait painter, nevertheless, produced some remarkable mural paintings in the Boston Public Library. His ceiling paintings and his first lunette representing his Religions of Idolatry sin against all the requirements of mural decoration except that of flatness. They are too confused in form and color and not sufficiently simplified to carry to a distance; but his frieze of the prophets is mural in effect, and a deservedly popular creation. In these he has so chastened the realism of his por-

*The names of Millet, Turner, Blashfield, Reid, Simmons, Cox, Melchers, appeared then and have remained.

trait style that the figures take their place on the wall effectively. An important consideration, however, is that in his later work here, "The Dogma of the Redemption," he shows distinct advance in adapting his style to these, for him, new conditions.

Mention may be made also of two notable series of mural decorations in the Boston Public Library by Puvis de Chavannes. Although this artist is not an American, his contribution to decorative art in America is of the highest importance since by common consent he ranks as the greatest modern master of mural painting.

The founding of the Municipal Art Society of New York, a society having for its motto "To make us love our city, we must make our city lovely," has given rise to similar societies all over the country. This society has raised the standard of public taste by setting the stamp of its approval or disapproval on proposed public works of art. It has also fostered art directly as when it provided decorations in the Criminal Court Buildings in New York, carried out by Edward Simmons. Another forward step was taken with the founding of "The National Society of Mural Painters" in 1895. Since this year the movement for wall decoration has spread amazingly, so that now over 150 professional artists are devoting their skill to this form of work and their services are in demand not only for churches, court houses, capitol buildings, and libraries but also for private residences, clubs, hotels, cafes, theaters, auditoriums, banks, school buildings, great office buildings, and department stores. Thus the interest in mural decoration has become both widespread and democratic.

Much that has been said about former methods of figure painting applies equally well to mural painting especially in the matter of subject and of composition. We have been fond of harking back to the painters of the Italian Renaissance. Personifications of virtues and abstract qualities—Charity, Justice and their kin in the guise of comely women displaying their wonted symbols have been

thought desirable reminders as tending to a general uplift of the nation. The figures must be balanced and grouped according to rule. Symmetry and perfect rhythm must enter conspicuously into the composition and all produce a result according to the canons of the academic schools of Paris. Atmosphere and light as developed by the modern landscapists in particular have received but scant attention.

To come back to the men who are in the movement in America. Typical of the academic group are such men as Kenyon Cox, H. Siddons Mowbray, Charles Sprague Pearce, Edwin H. Blashfield, and other accomplished artists. Of Blashfield it is important to note that ever since his beginnings as a decorator at the Columbian Exposition and in the Library of Congress to his latest works in Baltimore, St. Paul, and Newark, New Jersey, his art has shown steady progress. Note in his picture of the Sources of the Mississippi how one side exactly balances the other, and how symmetrically these groups are arranged with reference to the central figure which is carefully outlined against the dark background. No reproductions can present the beautiful effect of the water as it appears in the original, or the quiet harmony of the coloring.

At the same time, however, there has been, as already indicated, a group of painters who seem to reject the unrealities, allegories, and symbolism borrowed from Greece, and Rome, and Florence, and like the painters of old, are interpreting on the walls of many public buildings in a large and imaginative way, the history and traditions of their own country and the civilization of their own time. Some of the members of this group, who are associated only by kinship of aim and not by formal organization are C. Y. Turner, Howard Pyle, Miss Violet Oakley, W. B. Van Ingen, and John W. Alexander.

Mr. John W. Alexander's very beautiful and truly decorative series of lunettes in the Congressional Library called "The Evolution of the Book" were his first large mural

commission. Now he has done what might be called a monumental work in his series—not yet completed—of sixty wall decorations in Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg. His subject is the Apotheosis of Pittsburg. Pittsburg in the form of a man in armor is rising from the smoke and glow of furnaces. Contrary to the method of academic composition, the principal figure of the picture is not in the central panel but at the left. Lovely creatures float to him bearing rich gifts of all nations—artistic productions in fine metals and rare stuffs, while groups of angels on either side are sounding their trumpets. The floating figures have the long sweeping lines so characteristic of this artist's other work. In the lower corridor he has placed a series of sixteen oblong panels in which workers in the iron and steel mills, partly nude, in varied and yet most natural poses, lighted by the flames of the furnace fires and by the hot metal and shadowed by steam and smoke, give a marvellously poetic interpretation of labor in the great mills. This is a new and original way of interpreting modern life and offers a suggestion for future development of our mural art, in the treatment of American subjects in a large and imaginative manner.

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SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for May.)

Immigrants on the Land
II. Jewish Farmers*

By Kellogg Durland

THE tide of Jewish immigration presents a different problem from that of the Italian. The aggregate number of Jews coming to America annually from Russia, Austro-Hungary, Roumania, and other European states is nearly as large as the number of Italians. Congestion among the Jews in America occurs more rapidly. The seaport towns are even more frequently the destination of the Jewish immigrants than of the Italian. Today we find in New York City nearly 800,000 Jews—the largest aggregation of Jewish people ever found in one city in the history of the world. Old world customs are more universally imported by the denizens of Jewry than among Italians, and adhered to longer. Racial ties are strong, but racial ties supported by religious bonds are stronger. Italians come to America in most instances to work, to make money, and with the desire to ultimately return to their native land. The Jews emigrate with the idea of permanent flight. They come to America to live. A single man without encumbrance of wife and children is freer to move from place to place, to journey inland, west or south, and immediately take up whatever work offers. When the Jews land they are either accompanied by their families (which are frequently large) or they are determined to send for their families as soon as they can earn the necessary passage money. Thus is the Jewish immigration question, or rather, the Jewish *distribution* question complicated.

The intensely local life represented in the Jewish quarters of our large cities—the quarters popularly called "ghettos"—is a constant lure to a people whose traditions

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* Mr. Durland's article upon "Italian Farmers" appeared in the March CHAUTAUQUAN.

and habits for generations have been associated with huddling, with herding together in comparatively small areas. Temperamentally the Jews are not a pioneer people. They have never in all the course of their history hewn out fresh paths, nor explored farther frontiers. When they have invested hinterlands it has always been *en masse*. A lonely farm in the midst of a prairie, however fertile, does not tempt a ghetto bred Jew. Yet the terrific problems that arise as a result of the ghettos are problems that clamorously call for solution, and the establishment of other ghettos in other cities throughout the country is only partially gripping the problem. Dividing the problem may make it more possible of handling, but it does not necessarily lead to its solution.

In South Jersey, in the very district where the oldest Italian farm colonies are located, are a number of Jewish farm colonies, experiments in tempting the Jew from the town and endeavoring to start him as a farmer. The oldest and most important of these settlements which I have visited are at Alliance, Norma, Brotmanville, Carmel, Rosenhayn, and Woodbine. Some of these experimental colonies have been established long enough for us to attempt to formulate certain opinions in regard to the probable success of Jewish farmers in the future. If the Jewish question can be solved through the land, as I believe is largely possible of the Italian question, we shall have a very material contribution to the settlement of our whole so-called "Immigrant Problem."

After the Russo-Jewish immigration of 1881 and 1882, the first agricultural and industrial Jewish colonies in the United States were established. At that time the buying up of unimproved land and abandoned farms in different sections of the country and turning them over to the Jewish immigrants, was purely an experiment. These experiments in different sections of the country have worked out variously—in some places with moderate success.

With an annual Jewish immigration of more than one hundred thousand and with a natural tendency of the Jews to segregate in cities, and very often to remain in the cities to which they first go, there is an apparent need for the transportation of a very considerable number from the cities to bring about a satisfactory economic distribution which will give opportunity for future adjustment and proper assimilation.

Theoretically, the economic tendencies of the time are all against this method. For centuries the Jews have been traders rather than toilers, and where they have had the desire to work the soil they have been driven to the cities and corralled into Ghettos by rigid regulations of governments. In an age when the rising generation of the native population are constantly drifting to the cities, it is exceedingly difficult to take a people unaccustomed to the land and to stimulate them to face this current from the country and to establish themselves with the hope of becoming successful farmers and industrians in small towns. That this has been accomplished at all is owing to the fact that the people have been much helped in starting and the Jewish agricultural communities have been strengthened by the introduction of industrial interests, and into the midst of these industrial-agricultural settlements have been introduced certain social elements designed to attract and interest the young people and to hold them through the years when they would naturally be setting forth to the cities.

The early years of these experiments were marked by great hardship and many seasons were necessarily passed before the type of immigrant who is destined to make a successful agriculturist was discovered. The Jewish people from Roumania, for example, do not make successful farmers. Nor do the Austrians nor the Hungarians. And indeed not all of the Russians. But from Poland and from parts of Russia there do come each year a certain number of immigrants who have the capacity for adjusting them-

selves to the conditions of American farms and small town life.

The breaking out and reclamation of waste land is a terrible and arduous task—one that few American farmers will face in these days. But having once brought forth a harvest and been encouraged by a single yield of crops, the Jewish farmers are open to being convinced that farming may be profitable. They may even show themselves energetic and enthusiastic in attacking the waste land and in improving the reclaimed tracts.

The first of the Jewish colonies in southern New Jersey, Alliance, was named after the Alliance Israelite Universelle, which provided some of the money for its foundation. At the time that the first colonists arrived, land was bought and divided into sixty-seven farms of fifteen acres each and worth fifteen dollars an acre. With the improvements which these colonists have made and with the development of the colonies, uncultivated land in the same region today is worth upwards of one hundred dollars an acre and the cultivated land from three to twelve hundred dollars per acre.

Of the first colonists who went to Alliance each family was expected to pay three hundred and fifty dollars to the Immigrant Aid Society which sent them out. Of this amount one hundred and fifty dollars is supposed to represent the value of the house. During the first year of its existence the colonists received from eight to twelve dollars per month and one hundred dollars worth of seed for planting, also a small amount of furniture, cooking utensils, and farm implements. In 1889 the population of Alliance had grown to five hundred and twenty-nine, owning fourteen hundred acres of land, eight hundred and eighty-nine of which were under cultivation. There were ninety-two houses and a synagogue. In 1900 there were ninety-six families; of these thirty-three devoted themselves exclusively to agriculture, fifteen to tailoring, and twelve combined agriculture with

work in the tailor shops; the remaining thirty-six were masons, carpenters, etc. At the outset these people knew practically nothing of farming and so their policy in the beginning was to apprentice themselves to non-Jewish farmers round about and learn the rudiments of farming. Presently a cigar factory and a shirt waist factory were started in the village. The former was not long-lived, however, but the various sewing trades which began with the shirt waist factory have developed, until today there are tailoring establishments connected with each of the four existing colonies.

Shortly after the foundation of Alliance the colony of Carmel in Cumberland County was founded. Carmel in its earliest beginnings consisted of seventeen Russo-Jewish farmers. In 1889 there were two hundred and eighty-six people in Carmel living in some thirty houses. There were eight hundred and sixty-four acres of farm land owned by the people, but only one hundred and twenty-three of these were under cultivation. In this year Baron Maurice de Hirsch gave five thousand dollars with which fifteen hundred additional acres of land were purchased and thirty-six new houses built, these costing eight hundred dollars each.

In 1900 the Carmel colony consisted of eighty-nine families or nearly five hundred people, of whom nineteen families depended on agriculture for their existence, thirty-three upon tailoring, while fourteen combined tailoring with agriculture. Carmel today is much more largely an industrial colony than an agricultural community. The total value of the land in 1900 was $84,574.00, on which there was an indebtedness of $26,273.00.

In connection with this indebtedness, however, it must be remembered that the rentals of cottages go toward the purchase of houses and of land, and that in all probability the proportion of debt found among these colonies is not

A Russian Jew Farmer with his chickens, Woodbine, N. J.

An Immigrant Farmer cultivating his Irish potato crop at Woodbine, N. J.

Comfortable Cottage with all Modern Improvements, Woodbine, New Jersey.

Vineyard, Woodbine, N. J.

A Woodbine Farmer with his Family.

A Fourth of July crowd of children, Woodbine, N. J.

Baron De Hirsch Agricultural School at Woodbine, N. J.

Central School Building, Woodbine, N. J.

greater than the proportion of mortgages found on the average New England farm.

Between Carmel and Alliance is the colony of Rosenhayn, founded by the Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society in 1883. Six families started the community. Its existence has been precarious from the very beginning and the people have undergone many hardships.

In 1887 other families bought land in the vicinity of Rosenhayn, and while heavy mortgages were issued in order to pay off their indebtedness, these people went to work in various tailoring establishments, working the soil after hours, at night, on holidays, and at odd times when the shops were not working. Two years later thirty other families came out at one time. At this time the Jewish settlement comprised nineteen hundred and twelve acres, but with only two hundred and sixty-one acres under cultivation. There were sixty-seven families living in twenty-three houses. Some of these houses were built by local Jewish carpenters. Of the sixty-seven families who originally went to Alliance only one-half are still living on their original farms. The holdings are for the most part as small as they were at the beginning, for it has been shown through experiment and experience that Jewish immigrants for the most part are more successful with intensive cultivation than with the larger forms of farming. When there is a large crop of wheat or corn to look after it is pretty sure to go to waste in weeds, whereas with small crops the farmers seem to look after them better and produce a richer harvest. It is difficult to teach Jewish farmers anything of scientific farming, of the rotation of crops, or of any of the intricacies which go to make up successful farming except through a graphic method; that is to say, if a trained farmer attempts to explain to a Jewish farmer how he can better his crops, his advice is resented, whereas where there is a farm in the midst of an agricultural community where the crops are more successful and which is on the whole more

profitable than other farms around about, farmers will inquire as to the reasons for the difference. Thus in a way one prosperous farm will serve as a sort of model for all the colonists of that district. The Allivine Farm which was mentioned in connection with the Italian colonies is such a farm. On this farm during a typical year there is a yield of say five hundred barrels of potatoes from a three-acre patch. These are sold at fifty cents per barrel off the field. There are fifty barrels of sweet potatoes to the acre and about one and a half tons of grapes to the acre. This serves as an example to the colonist farmers of the district who endeavor to make their farms do as well.

On this farm also there is a small dance hall which serves as a kind of recreation center during the winter months, the manager of the Allivine farm acting as a sort of host to all the young men and women of the Allivine community of the colony; this being a frank attempt to counteract the tendency of the young men and women to drift to the city. This tendency, however is no stronger among Jewish colonists than among Americans. To counteract this hungering for city life, certain social and educational features are essential. The Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society employs a man who acts as a social secretary to provide these weekly entertainments at the other colonies—as at Carmel, for example, where there are dances every Friday night.

The Alliance colonists club together and support a physician. They manage among themselves to raise four hundred dollars a year, to which the Baron de Hirsch Society adds another four hundred dollars. This affords each member of the colony the privilege of calling upon this physician at any time during the year, and there is a regular stated fee of twenty-five cents per visit. Previous to the inauguration of this scheme doctors from other villages were summoned in times of illness and their charges were frequently exorbitant. The employment of a regular sal-

aried physician in this way it is estimated saves the colony probably from one thousand to fifteen hundred dollars a year.

Alliance also has its own Rabbi or *Schochod.* This man serves as Rabbi and Cantor both in the synagogue and receives his remuneration through the killing of meats which are consumed by the Jewish people who still insist upon having Kosher food. He receives five cents for killing chickens, fifty cents for killing beef, and receives fifty cents a week per child for conducting a Cheder or Hebrew school.

At the time of my visit there were about one hundred and twenty-five families at Carmel, the population numbering six hundred. There is a fairly large clothing factory employing from forty to fifty hands; a wrapper factory, employing sixty hands; and a shirtwaist factory employing thirty hands. All of these establishments are run throughout the year giving constant employment to their employes. During the two years that the present superintendent of the clothing factory has been there not one family has removed to the city. It sometimes happens that men will get a start in the factory and later purchase farms and continue to conduct their farms while still working more or less constantly in the factory. The advantages of the country factory to the employe are many. The class of work done is similar to that done in the ordinary sweat shops of the Ghettos of the city. At Carmel the workers receive the same wages that they receive in the city and their work is done under absolutely perfect hygienic conditions. The surroundings are airy and clean and the general state of the employes is distinctly better than in the slum shops. There is no especial advantage to the employer except that he has his regular staff of help and the satisfaction of knowing that his shop is sanitarily perfect; sometimes it is slightly more expensive, owing to the fact that he must include freight charges in the costs of the business. On the other

hand, rents, etc., are lower than in the city. There is a local union and most of the workers in the Carmel shops are trade unionists. There have never been any strikes or difficulties of any kind with the employers. They work fifty-five hours a week, and apparently are contented. These same people in the city would be the denizens of a Ghetto, living in squalid tenements and working under the most unsanitary conditions. Here they own their own homes, frequently have their own gardens, and oftentimes their own farms.

Further, in Carmel, Rosenhayn, Alliance, and Brotmanville, the taking of summer boarders has become almost an industry. Friends of the colonists from Philadelphia and New York come down throughout the summer season, paying six and eight dollars a week for rooms, and this cash profit to the colonists has been a great boon. It sometimes tends to interfere somewhat with the farming, for the horses are apt to be in demand and the farmer himself is frequently called upon to assist his wife in caring for the boarders, but this loss is amply compensated by the cash receipts taken in from the boarders, and in cases where the farmer himself neglects his work, he generally engages another man to do it for him.

Brotmanville, two miles north of Alliance, is the least lovely of the colonies. The soil is especially sandy and on the main street there is no sign of green grass or products of any kind; in fact it looks like a squalid industrial town. The prospects of Brotmanville, however, to its citizens seem exceedingly bright. The possibilities for improvement are great. A large swamp which adjoins the village may some day be reclaimed by damming the stream which goes through it, clearing off the trees and making a large lake. Plans for its development are now under consideration and it is entirely within the range of possibility that within a few years Brotmanville will be the largest of these communities.

In the cities the Jewish people are notably keen for education. Jewish children are among the brightest in the schools of New York. There is a marked desire on the part of the parents to keep the children in school as much as possible and upon the part of the children to acquire as much learning as they can. In the colonies, however, the children appear to care less for the schools. The desire on the part of the people seems to be more to make good farmers of their children, and when this is impossible, to send them off to the cities to get into business as early as they can. Originally, Jewish colonists were inclined to pack peddling. They found the difficulties of the soil so great that they became discouraged and gave up. Others took to themselves packs of merchandise of one sort or another and started abroad selling. Those who gave up and went away were the people who probably would have failed anywhere or the people who were temperamentally or by training unfitted for the agricultural pursuits. It is the universal testimony of immigrants in South Jersey that American farmers would have failed and given up much earlier if they had been placed on the same land. To break out an area so wild and so unpromising appears a prodigious task, and yet a sufficiently large number of these people stuck to their tasks to develop these colonies which are today apparently prospering.

There is a feeling among the people of Vineland and the neighboring villages that the average Jewish immigrant was not built for a farmer; that he is more successful as a trader, and in instance of this they point to a number of young men who have given up in the South Jersey colonies and who have gone off to the cities and are now traveling men or successful business men in the cities. On the other hand, as large, if not a larger proportion of the children of these colonists remain on the soil than American children of the same generation.

Woodbine is the newest of the Jewish colonies. It was

established seventeen years ago, but has been more rapidly developed than any of the other colonies and is today the most important Jewish colony in South Jersey. This is largely due to the fact that an agricultural school was established there and at this institution many men are being trained for work on the land and sent out to different parts of the country. Also to the fact that a number of factories have been established there and the community combines in the largest measure the agricultural and industrial interests.

There are five factories—a hat factory, a machine factory, a ladies' waist factory, a clothing factory, and a knitting goods factory. Together these factories give work to several hundred hands. In addition Woodbine has a pumping station and a power house which supplies electricity to the town and power to the various factories. It has four school houses, two synagogues, and a Talmud Torah.

Woodbine has also the unique distinction of being probably the only entirely Jewish community in the world with a political status. Its mayor, its board of six councilmen, and its assessor are all elected officers. There is also a department of health and a board of education, consisting of nine members, three of whom are annually elected.

In every respect Woodbine is conducted along the lines of an ordinary borough of the State of New Jersey. The population is about two thousand. There are nearly seven hundred children enrolled in the public schools and the school system consists of twelve teachers with a supervising principal. The Woodbine public schools were the first in the country to introduce a kindergarten, and today the schools include all classes from the kindergarten through the high school.

The town comprises about five thousand acres of land, approximately one-half of which is under cultivation. The original agricultural holdings were divided into thirty-acre plots, one-half of which were sold to the farmers with the understanding that they improve the fifteen acres and

they then be given option after a reasonable number of years on the adjoining fifteen acres.

Intensive farming is where the Jewish immigrants are most successful, and consequently the smaller holdings are still mostly in vogue, although there are a few farmers who have added large holdings to their originally small holdings, and they are today conducting farms upon a comparatively large scale.

Woodbine is a town without a jail. The Jews, as a whole, are a law-abiding people, and up to the present time the marshal has had practically no difficulty with the Jewish inhabitants. The trouble makers are almost entirely the Gentiles from neighboring towns and villages, and are more apt to be native born Americans than foreign colonists.

The moral atmosphere of all of these colonies is exceedingly good. Drunkenness is practically unknown among the Jews and theft and other crimes are equally rare. Most of the factories are closed on Saturdays, and Saturday is generally accepted as the Sabbath. While the children receive a cursory Hebrew training, they grow up understanding little Hebrew, though familiar with the jargon, Yiddish, and like the children of the second and third generations in the cities, they tend toward liberalism and to break away from the faith of their fathers. This unfortunate phenomenon, however, is not peculiar to the colonies, but is also one of the great problems of city life. As much harm results from the too rapid assimilation and Americanization of our immigrants as from the too slow development toward American standards and ideals.

The experiments in Italian colonization all point toward success. The experiments in Jewish colonization, after two decades of effort, are still uncertain in their conclusions. In other words, the Jewish immigrant has still to fight for recognition as a farmer, while the Italian has proved his adaptability to an agricultural life. The Italians have all the natural qualities that make for good farmers as well

as the heritage their peasant forbears have left them. The Jews have none of these advantages and are frequently further handicapped by families, and families mean also debts.

The first work which was laid out for the Jewish colonists, the developing of waste area, they have accomplished successfully. If the supply of hard workers can still be found among the immigrants who are annually coming into American ports, it is entirely possible that the Jewish immigrants will furnish America with a certain proportion of men who will become successful farmers.

Introducing industries into the Jewish farm communities is still a matter of dispute. Some who have watched these colonies from their earliest beginnings, feel that it would be better to concentrate all the energy of the community upon the land. Others feel that an agricultural community without markets for its products is at so great a disadvantage that it must not depend upon agricultural effort alone, but introduce the mills, factories, and the usual enterprise of the town in order that part of the community may find employment without leaving the town for a distant city. Unquestionably this would lend stability to these colonies, but having done this the communities cease to be "agricultural." At best they are small towns with agricultural interests. When Italians are directed to the soil, they promptly redeem it, enrich it, and establish themselves successfully upon it. The Jewish immigrants, however, have needed much assistance in every respect—as to farming methods, debts, and the marketing of their products. Having been started and liberally helped to gain a foothold, they sometimes work out to success but on the whole the results in this direction have been too meager to lend promise of wide success in any near future.

It is the present policy of the Baron de Hirsch Fund to help independent Jewish farmers rather than to establish more farm colonies. It is the belief of this organization that the Jewish colonies of South Jersey are now in a posi-

tion to work out their own salvation, but still with some material aid.

This investigation was undertaken solely for scientific purposes, directed toward practical conclusions. I spent nearly three weeks in the midst of these Italian and Jewish colonies, and my whole desire was to try to estimate the value of these experiments in the light of the great immigration question. I did not approach this task as a journalist, but as a student.

My own conclusions are that the Italian immigration question can in a very large measure be solved through the land. State authorities, working in collaboration with federal authorities, must take up the matter. Under large auspices, such as these, the undertaking is a thoroughly practical one and in the main resolves itself into a problem of distribution and transportation—problems which present comparatively few practical difficulties.

The Jewish question is more complicated, and in nearly every respect more difficult. To a certain small degree the Ghettos of the cities, especially the seaport cities, may find here a channel of relief, but I doubt if the problem of Jewish immigration will ever be solved in this way. The ultimate solution of the peculiar difficulties of Jewish immigration must be sought elsewhere. In the meantime, however, every effort in any direction, resulting in even small success should be encouraged. I would only venture the suggestion that the Jewish question must be handled differently—according to schemes not yet developed or discovered perhaps—while the Italian question can be solved right here and now, and that its solution only awaits the establishment of a properly equipped and financed bureau to undertake the work. Owing to the magnitude of the task and the value of its accomplishment to the whole country it is properly a national undertaking, therefore the matter is respectfully called to the attention of the people interested in the American immigration question, and through them to the federal authorities.

Some Great American Scientists*

VIII. John Fiske

By George Perry

JOHN FISKE was born at Middletown, Conn., March 30, 1842. His father, Edmund Brewster Green, who edited newspapers in Hartford and New York, died in Panama in 1852 and the name by which the subject of this article was known till his mother's second marriage to the late Edwin W. Stoughton, was Edmund Fiske Green. He was brought up in the house of his grandmother Fiske and in 1855 took the name by which alone he is known, John Fiske.

His childhood was spent mainly in study and one is amazed not merely by the number of books he read but also by the number of good books that were lying before him waiting to be read. In those days literature had not been so successfully adapted and compressed as now and he read solid books in the sturdiness of their original form. By the time he was eleven he had read Rollin, Josephus, Goldsmith's Greece, Gibbon, Robertson, Prescott, most of Froissart, all of Shakespeare and much of Milton, Bunyan, and Pope. At thirteen he had read a considerable amount of Latin literature and had made some progress in the face of obstacles in Greek. Nor had he devoted himself to the ancient languages alone; he had begun algebra at eight and had gone through Euclid, plane and spherical trigonometry, surveying and navigation and analytic geometry and had dipped well into differential calculus. He had ac-

*The first article of this series, "Asa Gray," by Prof. Charles Reid Barnes, appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September; the second, "John James Audubon," by Prof. Samuel C. Schmucker, in October; the third, "Simon Newcomb," by Prof. Malcolm McNeill, in November; the fourth, "Louis Agassiz," by David Starr Jordan, in December; the fifth, "Samuel Pierpont Langley," by William F. Magie, in January; the sixth, "Thomas Alva Edison," by George Iles, in February; the seventh, "Edward Drinker Cope," by William Hosea Ballou, in March.

quired a satisfactory knowledge of German, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese and learned them all by himself. In a word, he began as he ended, a hard student.

It would be a vain repetition to say that he was ready for college at an exceptionally early age and when he entered the sophomore class of Harvard in 1860 he brought to that seat of learning more abundant knowledge than many of his contemporaries took away. The college, as a whole, disappointed him. The course of study at that time was curiously limited and the most willing student was held back to a pace which should not exhaust the most indifferent. Half of the things Fiske had begun to work in were not taught at all and he was thrown back again upon his own resources. These he had good reason to trust. He worked at Hebrew, which was taught, and at Sanskrit which was not.

It was then that in the glow of youth he aspired to acquire all knowledge and since at that time books were supposed to be the repository of all knowledge, the notion was not utterly wild. There was required a busy reader with a good memory and that defined John Fiske. One does not need to claim originality for Fiske, in this desire for omniscience; there was a feeling in the air that it was almost attainable. Buckle aspired to it and Comte certainly looked at the acquisition of all knowledge as possible, if not already accomplished. Now it is different; omniscience survives only in the newspapers. The wind has wholly shifted and the aim of the ambitious student of today is to know one thing well and to let the rest go.

As was just said, the path to heights of omniscience lay across the printed page. The modern fashion of studying the objects themselves, rather than a description of them, had scarcely been invented and one had the advantage of studying the natural sciences without soiling a finger, as if one could learn anatomy from a book or botany by a course of winter reading in a library. This at least was the tendency of the education at that time, and one may

yet say without exaggeration that half a century ago the general tendency of education was to accumulate what has been picturesquely called "book-learning." Fiske was an enormous devourer of books, and when in college he spent twelve hours a day in study. He thus accumulated a vast amount of information which his capacious and quick memory made very serviceable; the difficulty was to find any occupation which could put his knowledge to some use. In such cases the study of law seemed to be the best opening, and he even after admission to the bar opened an office in Boston; but the prizes of that honorable profession were not for him. The usual solitude of a young lawyer's office he consoled by continued study outside of his profession. One suit was placed in his hands and he won it. He received a fee which exceeded the modest sum that literature could expect to earn, but Fiske decided, nevertheless, to give up the law and to devote himself to a life of letters. The question was an important one because he had married Miss Abbie Brooks of Petersham in September, 1864, and the claims of the young family had to be considered.

The first book he published was a little volume, scarcely bulkier than a pamphlet, called "Tobacco and Alcohol," in which he combatted some perhaps intemperate remarks of Mr. James Parton upon those matters. This was in 1868. In 1869 he was appointed University lecturer on philosophy in Harvard College and there he read his outline of Cosmic Philosophy, the book he had been preparing for many years, which was to expound and develop the system of evolution. He had before this read it in the United States in Boston and in New York as a course of lectures. The next year he received an appointment as instructor in history at Harvard and he seemed to have found the position best suited for him while the college had acquired an instructor exceptionally endowed with an admirable equipment and blessed with a really extraordinary power of imparting his great knowledge. Unfortunately, however, it was first whispered and then shouted abroad that Fiske was a dangerous

John Fiske.

man, an atheist, an adherent of a subversive philosophy, doubtless a corrupter of youth, and the authorities who certainly were not fanatical let themselves be led into the weakness of rejecting his nomination two years later. However, in 1872 he was appointed assistant librarian and this post he held until 1879. It was an honorable position but it was a most impractical employment of his special gifts.

Meanwhile he had been working hard and had brought out his first serious book, "The Outline of Cosmic Philosophy," in which he presented the theory of evolution and especially of evolution as defined by Herbert Spencer. It was not a mere work of vulgarization, but rather an attempted definition of the universe, which every philosophy is, in the light of evolution. The book met with great success, it spread abroad many novel ideas, it explained many difficult points, it proclaimed the new thought to many people. The book was the *magnum opus* of his youth to which his study for many years had tended, and the book once published, he acquired an honorable reputation as a serious and well informed writer.

For some years Fiske devoted himself to writing on learned topics in a style that made the knottiest problems simple. His "Myths and Mythmakers," "Darwinism and Other Essays," "Excursions of an Evolutionist" show well the wideness of his tastes and the profundity of his knowledge. Nor was omniscience ever presented in a more attractive light; his marvelous clearness where cloudy wordiness is so often met, was most delightful. His studies had gone on uninterruptedly and especially in the line of historical investigation. After the centennial celebration of 1876, American history had begun to interest seriously both students and casual readers. Fiske was asked to give some lectures in the Old South Church of Boston, and these met with such success that a new career opened before him. He began to give courses of lectures in one place after another, devoting the summer to their preparation and the winter to reading them in different towns and cities. The lectures

thus written and read he afterwards worked over into one of a series of books in which he meant to recount the whole course of American history. At first he intended to write a single volume after the pattern of Greene's admirable short history of the English people, but the plan soon modified itself and he found himself deep in the larger work which he never ended.

It is well that Fiske thus gave himself time to tell the story leisurely, for he needed ample space to appear at his best. He was capable of performing admirable bits of compression, as the little volumes, "The Destiny of Man" and the "Idea of God" clearly show. Indeed, the second of the three lectures published under the title of "American Political Ideas Viewed from the Standpoint of Universal History" is a marvel of compact statement, but readers are happier when they have a moment to breathe. He saw his subject, too, in its full significance, he looked at American history as a part of the history of the world and was thus able to interpret phenomena with remarkable clearness. The reader will recall many of the historical manuals which American students have thrust into their hands and he will agree that many of them seem to regard what has happened in America as something without relation to the rest of the world. They teach, too, with much warmth the tyranny of the English and the pure patriotism of us Americans in a way that is admirably fitted to breed suspicion and hatred of a country to which we owe something besides hatred. They are dry and too often a mere chronicle of events. The charm of Fiske's work is that not only does he tell what happened, but he also makes it clear why it happened. He explains, as well as narrates, and thus the reader sees how clearly the history of America is connected with the history of the world.

It would not be rash to say that it would be hard to name a clearer writer than Fiske. He had the art of putting the most difficult and complicated propositions in such light that the reader cannot fail to comprehend them.

Everywhere we get the fruit of his wide study and clarifying intelligence. The generous abundance of his knowledge gives him authority. His learning was very great and very wide. It was worn easily, for it is only pedantry that sits awkwardly on the wearer, and it was accurate. His memory was wonderful and easily commanded the knowledge that he had accumulated.

In reading his histories, one has the feeling of being led by the hand by a very well informed and exceedingly amiable guide who delights to instruct and does so with the utmost charm. The charm comes from his intelligence; the learning is an important part but it is the way the learning is handled that delights the reader. That it is unpedantic will be readily acknowledged; what is not so easily seen is the way in which the reader is led to take a high view of the events he is reading about. Almost without an effort he is seeing things through Fiske's eyes, he is perceiving the relations of things in a new fashion. History is explained and set before us with a breadth of treatment that is very rare and very important. There are as many ways, of course, of writing history as there are of painting a picture and it is sometimes unwisely thought that the merit of any work of art lies in the method itself and not in the intelligence of the man who makes it, but it is the way the method is applied that makes the work a success or a failure.

Fiske had acquired a vast mass of information and this he had from instinct and from habit so clarified that he had complete command of it and he set it before the reader in perfect order. His mind worked with perfect smoothness, and he was not distracted by whims and fancies. There were no gaps that had to be bridged over with loud asservations, but each work is an unbroken, smooth story flowing somewhat majestically from the beginning to the end. Whatever work Fiske took up had the same quality, the same full, steady flow of information directed and elucidated by a clear intelligence.

He was an untiring worker. Every winter he passed

in visiting one town or another, to deliver a course of lectures that he had been preparing during the summer. In 1884 he had been appointed professor of American History in Washington University, St. Louis, and there he opened his winter campaign. He gave himself no rest, except an occasional visit to the concert room, for music was always one of his main interests. He had friends in many parts of the country who will remember long talks with him with great delight, for Fiske dearly loved not to chat, but to fold his legs and have his talk out. Then he was at his best, with his learning, his clear perceptions, his unfailing optimism, for he never doubted that all would be for the best if by any chance it were not at the best now. He would never skim lightly over any subject, he liked to look at it from all sides and to see what there was inside, and he examined it most conscientiously.

These phrases seem to describe a pompous and immensely serious man, altogether too dignified to smile, whereas in fact, Fiske's optimism was part of his nature; he was always cheerful, indeed more than cheerful, he was merry. His robust health appeared to lift him above all petty worries, he looked at life hopefully, and life does not always smile back upon men who are supporting their families by writing history not in the form of a novel. When things went wrong he was without rancor. He hated dishonesty and sham, but he hated without virulence.

In fact, his character was a very simple one, he had no perplexing contradictions which it was hard to reconcile. He was of a very simple nature, direct, and above all things, honest. He was singularly incapable of deceit. If any of his theories or statements could have been disproved, he would have been the first to rejoice that a mistake could be corrected.

It was in the midst of his labors that this distinguished scholar was removed. He was spending the summer of 1901 in Cambridge to prepare his winter's work, when the hot weather that made life almost unendurable for everyone,

found him singularly unfitted to withstand the drain it made on his strength. He went to East Gloucester on the seashore to find, if possible, some coolness, some relief from the killing heat, but it was too late; he died there July 7, almost immediately on his arrival. It was an untimely end of a laborious life, one of unremitting toil, at first without recognition, though the later years of life were cheered by general appreciation of his merits. Few men, other than financiers or politicians have been more widely known in America, and he had, for a long time, enjoyed a high reputation abroad. And there is this satisfaction, that his reputation was deserved.

The Poetry of William Vaughn Moody

By Carl H. Grabo

THE irony with which at times fame practises upon worthy writers, has a fine modern instance in the celebrity gained by William Vaughn Moody through the success of his play, "The Great Divide." For some years Mr. Moody has been recognized by discerning lovers of poetry as one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of our modern poets in English. His two masques and single published volume of poems seem indeed slight in quantity and insufficient to base such a claim unless their high quality be emphasized. Quality duly considered they suffice to raise Mr. Moody to the highest rank of contemporary poets. The public, however, if at all acquainted with his work, has been on the whole largely indifferent, and Mr. Moody remained "undiscovered" until his successful play demanded the consideration of the dramatic critics. These at once acclaimed him the most promising of American playwrights and pronounced "The Great Divide" the long-expected "great American drama." Inasmuch as Mr. Moody was already known to have dipped into poetry, re-

viewers referred casually to his earlier works, some, in a patronizing way describing them as unactable poetic dramas. Unactable they certainly are and were so intended to be, but to anyone who has read them they must appeal at once as great poetry, whereas Mr. Moody's successful drama, financially profitable as it has been, seems by comparison a bit of pot-boiling. No criticism attaches to Mr. Moody for writing a remunerative play, one which will enable him to continue, undeterred by lack of financial return, the composition of poetry. But it is indeed unfortunate if Mr. Moody's triumph as a popular dramatist prevent the public from properly appreciating his work as a poet, for as a poet he has already shown himself a great and original writer, one who in profoundness of conception and mastery of verse seems unrivalled among the English writing poets of today.

Mr. Moody has published but three volumes,* one a collection of miscellaneous poems, in 1902; the others, two masques of an as yet uncompleted trilogy, "The Fire Bringer" and "The Masque of Judgment," published respectively, in 1904 and 1902. In discussing these various works it will be well to begin with the trilogy of dramatic poems for these are the most ambitious of Mr. Moody's work and reveal at their best that power of thought and that beauty of expression which characterize all of his poetry.

Of the two published poems of the projected trilogy, "The Fire Bringer" though second in time of composition is yet first in the thought sequence of the cycle. It is a fresh treatment of the Prometheus theme already made famous in English poetry through the work of Shelley and Mrs. Browning. Prometheus, the lover of men, wrests from Nature her cunning secrets that mankind may profit thereby. The nations flourish and Zeus enraged at the flushed insolence of the race he has created resolves on its destruction. He

*Mr. Moody's poetry is published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.: "The Fire-Bringer," $1.10; "The Masque of Judgment," $1.50; "Poems," $1.25.

brings a great flood upon the world which but a few survive, these, however, including Deukalion and Pyrrha. They, as the waters recede from a devastated world, replenish the race of men by throwing stones over their shoulders, those thrown by Deukalion becoming men, those by Pyrrha. women. It is at this point in the legend that Mr. Moody begins his poem, picturing the desolate world, dim, without fire or heat, and with but a few survivors of its former life. These make sacrifices and pray in vain for the return of the sun, the new-made men, meanwhile, existing as hardly more than shadows in that they lack the vitalizing heat.

Prometheus, undeterred by the gloom and the wrath of the gods, seeks tirelessly for the forbidden fire. But on earth no flint retains the desired spark and the altar fires are cold. In the absence of Zeus he even storms Olympus, steals fire and is about to escape with it when a pursuing thunderbolt breaks the vase he carries and spills the precious element. Discouraged but persistent he follows the encouragements of Pandora, his wife, and in a fennel stalk contrives again to steal the fire, this time successfully. Light and heat return to the earth and the old life is resumed. Prometheus, however, is, for his audacity, bound,

> "A thousand aeons, nailed in pain
> On the blown World's plunging prow."

The masque, it would seem, summarizes in poetic form this great contribution made by the Greeks to the philosophy of the world: man's cunning, by which he raises himself to a position of rivalry with the gods, must forever guard itself, for in sloth and content vanishes the ever necessary watchfulness and man becomes the prey not only of the jealous gods but also of his own weaker nature. Only through strife does he keep his soul from rust:

> "The sun whose rising and whose going down
> Are joy and grief and wonder in the heart;
> The moon whose tides are passion, thought, and will;
> The signs and portents of the spirit year,—

For these, if you would keep them, you must strive
Morning and night against the jealous gods
With anger, and with laughter, and with love;
And no man hath them till he brings them down
With love, and rage, and laughter from the heavens,—
Himself the heavens, himself the scornful gods,
The sun, the sun-thief, and the flaming reed
That kindles new the beauty of the world."

The poem throughout is Greek in spirit, its philosophy an intellectual and esthetic one. The verse, compact and musical, is free from the richer imagery which in the "Masque of Judgment" is suited to the more luxuriant spirit of a Hebraic theme. But though set pieces of quotable description are comparatively lacking, the "Fire Bringer" finds poetic compensation in the magic of its songs. These are indescribable in their subtle mastery of word music and must be read in their appropriate setting to be fully appreciated. Perhaps the quoted lyric, one of Pandora's songs, may serve to indicate the power of diction and musical suggestion which make the "Fire Bringer" unsurpassed in modern poetry:

"Along the earth and up the sky
The Fowler spreads his net:
O soul, what pinions wild and shy
Are on thy shoulders set?
What wings of longing undeterred
Are native to thee, spirit bird?

What sky is thine behind the sky,
For refuge and for ecstasy?
Of all thy heavens of clear delight
Why is each heaven twain,
O soul! that when the lure is cast
Before thy heedless flight,
And thou art snared and taken fast
Within one sky of light,
Behold, the net is empty, the cast is vain,
And from thy circling in the other sky the lyric laughters rain!"

In the "Masque of Judgment," first in time of composition but second in the order of the projected trilogy, Mr. Moody has cast into poetic form the Hebrew philosophy

which like the Greek myth of Prometheus forms so important a part of our modern thought. But whereas in "The Fire Bringer" the philosophy was an intellectual one, it is here emotional and ethical. The characters are chiefly archangels and various other heavenly personages, chief among whom is Raphael, the most human of the archangels, loving man and his ways. The thought of the poem is more difficult to grasp than that of "The Fire Bringer," the philosophy being ethical and more complex.

God, to satisfy the impulse within him, created Heaven with its orders of divine life. Unsatisfied he created the earth with its human life, a life mixed of good and evil, joy and pain, both divine and earthly in its desires. But though in part virtuous, humanity not only abuses its freedom in sensuality, but also by reason of its divine creative impulse finds sufficient satisfaction in its own works, losing its feeling of dependence upon God.

Evil too often triumphs over the divine impulse; rage, hate, love, and lust wage uncertain battle. Then God to save the life of his creation takes on human form and suffers death that those who accept him may be saved, those who reject, destroyed. At the Judgment the good are preserved to become a part of the heavenly life, the evil crushed, though Raphael who looks on, powerless to help, suffers in the annihilation of those he loves, for all life and its passion is to him lovable in all its manifestations, good and bad.

With the destruction of the evil, however, a strange apathy and weakness overcome all things divine, and the Worm, created when man was created, attacks the protectors of the throne, seeming in the end of doubtful conflict to overcome them. The Worm it would seem symbolizes utter death and its triumph is made possible when the conflict of good and evil ceases. Only in conflict can there be life. Says Raphael:

"Why did he quench their passion? I have walked
The rings of planets where strange-colored moons
Hung thick as dew, in ocean orchards feared
The glaucous tremble of the living boughs
Whose fruit hath eyes and purpose; but nowhere
Found any law but this: Passion is power,
And, kindly tempered, saves. All things declare
Struggle hath deeper peace than sleep can bring:
The restlessness that put creation forth
Impure and violent, held holier calm
Than that Nirvana whence is wakened Him."

So Uriel in much the same strain:

"'Tis not mine
To lesson thee how height and depth are bound
So straitly that when evil dies, as soon
Good languishes, nor how the flesh and soul
Quicken with striving, and when strife is done
Decline from what they were."

This brief commentary can but hint at the philosophy Mr. Moody has clothed in glowing verse. But though the philosophy be at times a little dark and difficult, the beauty of the verse must be apparent to all lovers of poetry. It is verse gleaming with a rare and varied imagery, and with a lavish wealth of diction infinite in its appeals to all the senses. The lines too are rich in music, endlessly varied blank verse, songs of subtle rhythms, rhymed verse of all metres forming a whole of infinite complexity. Indeed, in the music and color of the verse one ceases to care, often, for the underlying philosophy profound though it is.

One further quotation must suffice:

(Raphael sings)

"On earth all is well, all is well on the sea;
Though the day breaks dull
All is well.
Ere the thunder had ceased to yell
I flew through the wash of the sea
Wing and wing with my brother the gull.
On the crumbling comb of the swell,
With the spindrift slashing to lee,
Poised we;
The petrel thought us asleep
Till sidewise round on stiffened wing,
Keen and taut to take the swing
With the grass-green avalanches in their swerving plunge and sweep,

Down the glassy, down the prone,
Swift as swerving thunder-stone,
We shot the green crevasses
And we hallooed down the passes
Of the deep.

"On earth all is well, all is well.
In the weeds of the beach lay the shell
With the sleeper within,
And the pulse of the sleeper showed through
The walls of his delicate house
That will wake with the sun into silver and purple and blue.
Where the creek makes out, and the sea makes in
Between the low cliff-brows
Was borne the talk of the aldered linn
Matching the meadow's subtile din;
And hark, from the grey high overhead
The lark's keen joy was shed!
For what though the summer sulky was
And the punctual sun belated,
His nest was snug in the tufted grass,
Soft-lined and stoutly plaited,
And shine sun may or stay away
Nests must be celebrated!

"Drowsy with dawn, barely asail,
Buzzes the blue-bottle over the shale,
Scared from the pool by the leaping trout;
And the brood of turtlings clamber out
On the log by their oozy house.
Round the roots of the cresses and stems of the ferns
The muskrat goes by dodges and turns;
Till she has seized her prey she heeds not the whine of her mouse.
Lovingly, spitefully, each
Kind unto kind makes speech;
Marriage and birth and war, passion and hunger and thirst,
Song and plotting and dream, as it was meant from the first!"

What may be the third of this more than Miltonic trilogy must of course remain a matter of conjecture until Mr. Moody chooses to enlighten us. It may be his purpose to complete his series with some modern theme, embodying the philosophy which underlies social movements of today, the religion of service to others, the spiritual meaning of democracy. We can but hope that it will be on an equality with the two poems he has already written.

In his "Poems" published in 1902 and in occasional poems since printed in current magazines, Mr. Moody has

it must be confessed, are not likely soon to become widely read. Of these poems a few have already achieved a high place in contemporary verse, as notably his "Ode in a Time of Hesitation" which possesses an occasional as well as a poetic interest in that it was written at the time of the subjugation of the Philippines, its theme, freedom. This poem has been declared by competent judges to be one of the greatest in American literature and indeed its masterly use of American names would alone justify the claim. Nowhere outside of the poems of Walt Whitman will one find such a sweep of patriotic vision, and Mr. Moody, it may be added has a command of the music of verse such as Whitman seldom even suggests.

Other poems, less widely known perhaps, are no less excellent. Of the published volume, the opening poem, "Gloucester Moors" is, perhaps, the most perfect of these in its union of poetic expression and simplicity of idea. In it Mr. Moody voices the question which many of today have asked when speculating on the inequalities and injustices of society, a question which the poet phrases thus:

"Who has given to me this sweet,
And given my brother dust to eat?
And when will his wage come in?"

I cannot forbear quoting two stanzas from this poem simply as an illustration of what Mr. Moody can do with poetic imagery, though the quotation free of its context fails to give the spirit of the poem as a whole:*

"This earth is not the steadfast place
We landsmen build upon;
From deep to deep she varies pace,
And while she comes is gone.
Beneath my feet I feel
Her smooth bulk heave and dip;
With velvet plunge and soft upreel
She swings and steadies to her keel
Like a gallant, gallant ship.

*The entire poem will be found in the Library Shelf, page 287 of this magazine.

"These summer clouds she sets for sail,
The sun is her masthead light,
She tows the moon like a pinnace frail
Where her phosphor wake churns bright.
Now hid, now looming clear,
On the face of the dangerous blue
The star fleets tack and wheel and veer,
But on, but on does the old earth steer
As if her port she knew."

Alike in its social significance is "The Brute" a poetical arraignment of our commercialism and the homage we pay to mechanical things, a poem, however, which points the way to the better, freer life which must come when commercialism takes its proper place and becomes the basis of social life not the end of life itself. This poem, strong as it is, has an imitative note but rarely found in Mr. Moody's poetry for it seems to be of the school of Kipling. The parallelism is not to be found in minor analogies but rather as permeating the whole, and in so original a poet as Mr. Moody seems a weakness rather than a source of strength.

The same criticism applies, though in lesser degree, to the "Menagerie," an amusing and profound poem which is rather Browningesque. Here the influence of another poet is even more difficult to trace than in "The Brute," but though indefinable is none the less manifest. "The Menagerie" is a poem such as Browning might have written and be it added, been proud to write, for the verse flows more easily than is usual with Browning.

Mr. Moody, however, must be taken for himself alone, for his resemblances to other poets are usually those due merely to a spiritual kinship rather than to an intellectual emulation. He has mastered the technique of his predecessors, added harmonies of his own, and set himself vigorously to the expression of his own ideas. Some of his poems indeed suffer in their universal appeal from this very individuality, for the mood which prompted them is not always readily intelligible. That is to say, Mr. Moody's poetry must, often, be studied to be understood, and studied, moreover, in a sympathetic mood.

Throughout all the poems, however, whether of social significance or merely personal in their expression of an individual emotion based on experiences unknown to the reader, there persists the same high poetic quality, a quality manifest alike in the command of the music of verse, the copious and careful diction, and the fine use of imagery. There is, moreover, a certain vastness of conception rare even in great poetry. Even a slight reading of Mr. Moody's verse must reveal his love for the infinite and the mysterious. The immensity of space, the starry heavens, the rising sun and moon, these together with the clouds and storms and the ever recurrent sea are the natural phenomena to which the poet turns repeatedly for his poetic background or for his imagery. If influences were worthy of discussion in this connection it would be fair to say that Mr. Moody resembles Shelley. But there is also a sanity and a grasp of the realities of the actual, palpable, everyday world which Shelley had not. One further quotation (from "Jetsam") will serve to illustrate Mr. Moody's peculiar quality, his remarkable command of suggestive diction when painting vast and familiar phenomena:

> "For me one sight stood peerless and apart:
> Bright rivers tacit; low hills prone and dumb;
> Forests that hushed their tiniest voice to hear;
> Skies for the unutterable advent robed
> In purple like the opening iris buds;
> And by some lone expectant pool, one tree
> Whose gray boughs shivered with excess of awe,—
> As with preluding gush of amber light,
> And herald trumpets softly lifted through,
> Across the palpitant horizon marge
> Crocus-filleted came the singing moon."

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

ELIHU BURRITT was a reverent believer in the Christian religion, a philanthropist, and reformer, a most zealous abolitionist at a time when it cost something for a man to avow himself an advocate of the freedom of the negro. He was the son of a farmer who was also a shoemaker, working with hoe and sickle in summer and with hammer and awl in winter and on rainy days in summer. The biographer of Elihu Burritt says "he was in the habit of practising on problems of mental arithmetic which he extemporized and solved while blowing the bellows. They were rather quaint in their terms, but quite effective as an exercise. One was 'How many barley corns at three to the inch will it take to go around the earth at the equator?' All these figures he had to carry in his head while heating and hammering the iron." It was such mental exercise as this that induced him to give up at twenty-one, three months to study. He packed a marvelous amount of energy into this period of opportunity and one finds it hard to accept all that his biographer says concerning his success.

He studied mathematics, Latin, French and Greek. His success in the efforts put forth during these brief periods induced him to go to New Haven "merely to reside and study in the atmosphere of Yale College, thinking that that alone would, without teachers, impart the ability which he could not acquire at home. Besides, being then naturally timid and also half-ashamed to ask instruction in the rudiments of Greek and Hebrew, at twenty-two years of age he determined to work his way without consulting any college professor or educator. So the first morning in New Haven he sat down to Homer's Iliad without note or com-

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*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

ment, and with a Greek Lexicon with Latin definitions. He had not as yet read a line in the book, and he resolved if he could make out two lines by hard study through the whole day he would never ask help of any man thereafter in mastering the Greek language. By the middle of the afternoon he had won a victory which made him feel strong and proud and which greatly affected his subsequent life and studies. He mastered the first fifteen lines of the book and committed the originals to memory and walked out among the classic trees of the Elm City and looked up at the college which once had half awed him with a kind of defiant feeling. He now divided the hours of each day between Greek and other languages, Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, German and, Hebrew, giving to Homer about half the time."

Elihu Burritt was a Christian man. A few paragraphs from his writings will give us some idea of his spirit.

He pays a lovely tribute to his friend the Quaker, "good Joseph Sturge," as he called him. He says "Joseph Sturge was unlike Howard, unlike Clarkson, unlike Wilberforce. His philanthropy was as pure and large as theirs in *every* direction. . . . The Son of God's love and life was to his great heart what the summer sun of heaven is to the full moon. The reflection of that higher illumination came off from its daily life with as slight a parallax or 'shadow of turning' as we ever saw in man. It was this which gave his benevolence its broad and perfect circumference, embracing with equal heartiness every good word and work for man."

In a letter to a friend in 1844 he writes "There is a spot of earth, a little mound, as yet unfringed by a single blade of grass, to which my spirit would beckon yours. *It is my mother's grave.* You have wept over the sodded resting place of a beloved parent; come then and see where they laid *my* mother, and such a mother as scarcely ever was laid in the grave since graves were made. . . . Once I thought the sun would be darkened when she died, and every star go out in the firmament of my soul, and the birds would strike their languid wings in mournful silence, and my heart

be sad and songless. But not so. I have hardly shed a tear, and yet once I thought that I should fill her grave with them. But she lives! I know she lives and loves me still; and this sustains and comforts me. Yes, she lives nearer the throne of grace where angels pray, and there I am sure she prays for me."

The correspondence of Mr. Burritt was very extensive, devoted to the cause of peace, pleading for ocean penny postage, protesting against bondage in all forms, advocating arbitration and standing for everything that represented "good-will to men." He writes December 21, 1878, to an old friend, "I am almost astonished at my own reformatory and literary labors. The other day I received a note from Dr. Allibone, Philadelphia, asking me to give a list of the books I have written and periodicals I have edited. I did so as well as my memory would allow and found they numbered *thirty-two.*"

Mary Howitt, the eminent English authoress, said, "Among the many remarkable men in this remarkable age no one seems to us more worthy of notice than Elihu Burritt. . . . His many-languaged head is wedded to a large and benevolent heart every throb of which is a sentiment of brotherhood to all mankind. . . . He has not read Homer and Virgil and the Sagas of the North and the Vedas of the East to admire only and to teach others to admire, the strong handed warrior, going his way to glory through prostrate and bleeding thousands; he has read only to learn more emphatically that God made all men to be brethren and that Christ gave as the sum total of his doctrines that they should love one another. This is the end of all his reading and learning; and better by far to have learned this with hard hands and swarthy brow from the labors of his forge and hammer than to have studied in easy universities, to have worn lawn and ermine and yet to have garnered no expansive benevolence while he became a prodigy of learning."

Gloucester Moors*

By William Vaughn Moody.

A mile behind is Gloucester town
Where the fishing fleets put in,
A mile ahead the land dips down
And the woods and farms begin.
Here, where the moors stretch free
In the high blue afternoon,
Are the marching sun and talking sea,
And the racing winds that wheel and flee
On the flying heels of June.

Jill-o'er-the-ground is purple blue,
Blue is the quaker-maid,
The wild geranium holds its dew
Long in the boulder's shade.
Wax-red hangs the cup
From the huckleberry boughs,
In barberry bells the grey moths sup,
Or where the choke-cherry lifts high up
Sweet bowls for their carouse.

Over the shelf of the sandy cove
Beach-peas blossoms late.
By copse and cliff the swallows rove
Each calling to his mate.
Seaward the sea-gulls go,
And the land-birds all are here;
That green-gold flash was a vireo,
And yonder flame where the marsh-flags grow
Was a scarlet tanager.

This earth is not the steadfast place
We landsmen build upon;
From deep to deep she varies pace,
And while she comes is gone.

*Reprinted from "Poems," by William Vaughn Moody, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1902, by special permission of the publishers. See page 274 of this magazine for a discussion of Mr. Moody's poetry.

Beneath my feet I feel
Her smooth bulk heave and dip;
With velvet plunge and soft upreel
She swings and steadies to her keel
Like a gallant, gallant ship.

These summer clouds she sets for sail,
The sun is her masthead light,
She tows the moon like a pinnace frail
Where her phosphor wake churns bright.
Now hid, now looming clear,
On the face of the dangerous blue
The star fleets tack and wheel and veer,
But on, but on does the old earth steer
As if her port she knew.

God, dear God! Does she know her port,
Though she goes so far about?
Or blind astray, does she make her sport
To brazen and chance it out?
I watched when her captains passed:
She were better captainless.
Men in the cabin, before the mast,
But some were reckless and some aghast
And some sat gorged at mess.

By her battened hatch I leaned and caught
Sounds from the noisome hold,—
Cursing and sighing of souls distraught
And cries too sad to be told.
Then I strove to go down and see;
But they said, "Thou art not of us!"
I turned to those on the deck with me
And cried, "Give help!" But they said, "Let be:
Our ship sails faster thus."

Jill-o'er-the-ground is purple blue,
Blue is the quaker-maid,
The alder-clump where the brook comes through
Breeds cresses in its shade.
To be out of the moiling street
With its swelter and its sin!
Who has given to me this sweet,
And given my brother dust to eat?
And when will his wage come in?

Scattered wide or blown in ranks,
Yellow and white and brown,
Boats and boats from the fishing banks
Come home to Gloucester town.
There is cash to purse and spend,
There are wives to be embraced,
Hearts to borrow and hearts to lend,
And hearts to take and keep to the end,—
O little sails, make haste!

But thou, vast outbound ship of souls,
What harbor town for thee?
What shapes, when thy arriving tolls,
Shall crowd the banks to see?
Shall all the happy shipmates then
Stand singing brotherly?
Or shall a haggard ruthless few
Warp her over and bring her to,
While the many broken souls of men
Fester down in the slaver's pen,
And nothing to say or do?

Whistler vs. Ruskin

Celebrated in the annals of art is the suit of Whistler vs. Ruskin in which the pugnacious and brilliant artist challenged the competency of the Slade Professor to pass criticism upon a creative artist. The criticism which was the subject of the dispute appeared in *Fors Claviger*, July 2, 1877, and was as follows:

"For Mr. Whistler's own sake, no less than for the protection of the purchaser, Sir Coutts Lindsay ought not to have admitted works into the gallery in which the ill-educated conceit of the artist so nearly approached the aspect of wilful imposture. I have seen, and heard, much of cockney impudence before now; but never expected to hear a coxcomb ask two hundred guineas for flinging a pot of paint in the public's face."

Because of this criticism Whistler sued Ruskin for £1000, the trial holding the attention of the art public of London. We print herewith the interesting portions of the testimony:

Mr. Whistler, cross-examined by the Attorney-General, said: "I have sent pictures to the Academy which have not been received. I believe that is the experience of all artists. . . . The nocturne in black and gold is a night piece, and represents the fireworks at Cremorne."

"Not a view of Cremorne?"

"If it were called a view of Cremorne, it would certainly bring about nothing but disappointment on the part of the beholders. (Laughter.) It is an artistic arrangement. It was marked two hundred guineas."

"Is not that what we, who are not artists, would call a stiffish price?"

"I think it very likely that that may be so."

"But artists always give good value for their money, don't they?"

"I am glad to hear that so well established. (A laugh.) I do not know Mr. Ruskin, or that he holds the view that a picture should only be exhibited when it is finished, when nothing can be done to improve it, but that is a correct view; the arrangement in black and gold was a finished picture, I did not intend to do anything more to it."

"Now, Mr. Whistler, can you tell me how long it took you to knock off that nocturne?"

. . . "I beg your pardon?" (Laughter.)

"Oh! I am afraid that I am using a term that applies rather to my own work. I should have said, How long did you take to paint that picture?"

"Oh, no! permit me, I am too greatly flattered to think that you apply to work of mine, any term you are in the habit of using with reference to your own. Let us say then how long did I take to—'knock off,' I think that is it—to knock off that nocturne; well, as well as I remember, about a day."

"Only a day?"

"Well, I won't be quite positive; I may have still put a few more touches to it the next day if the painting were not dry. I had better say then I was two days at work on it."

"Oh, two days! The labour of two days then is that for which you ask two hundred guineas?"

"No;—I ask it for the knowledge of a lifetime." (Applause.)

"You have been told that your pictures exhibit some eccentricities?"

"Yes, often." (Laughter.)

"You send them to the galleries to incite admiration of the public?"

"That would be such vast absurdity on my part, that I don't think I could." (Laughter.)

"You know that many critics entirely disagree with your views as to these pictures."

"It would be beyond me to agree with the critics."

"You don't approve of criticism then?"

"I should not disapprove in any way of technical criticism by a man whose whole life is passed in the practise of the science which he criticises; but for the opinion of a man whose life is not so passed I would have as little regard as you would, if he expressed an opinion on law."

"You expect to be criticised?"

"Yes; certainly. And I do not expect to be affected by it, until it comes a case of this kind. It is not only when criticism is inimical that I object to it, but also when it is incompetent. I hold that none but an artist can be a competent critic."

"You put your pictures upon the garden wall, Mr. Whistler, or hang them on the clothes line, don't you—to mellow?"

"I do not understand."

"Do you put your paintings out into the garden?"

"Oh! I understand now. I thought, at first, that you were perhaps again using a term that you are accustomed to yourself.

"The Falling Rocket," Whistler's "Nocturne in Black and Gold," the painting which caused the Ruskin-Whistler controversy.

Head of Whistler carved by Bruno Zinn, a pupil of St. Gaudens.

Yes, I certainly do put the canvases into the garden that they may dry in the open air while I am painting, but I should be sorry to see them 'mellowed.'"

"Why do you call Mr. Irving 'an arrangement in black?'" (Laughter.)

Mr. Baron Huddleston: "It is the picture and not Mr. Irving that is the arrangement."

A discussion ensued as to the inspection of the pictures, and incidentally Baron Huddleston remarked that a critic must be competent to form an opinion and bold enough to express that opinion in strong terms if necessary.

The Attorney General complained that no answer was given to a written application by the defendant's solicitors for leave to inspect the pictures that the plaintiff had been called upon to produce at the trial. The witness replied that Mr. Arthur Severn had been to his studio to inspect the paintings, on behalf of the defendant, for the purpose of passing his final judgment upon them and settling that question forever.

After the Court had re-assembled the "Nocturne in Black and Gold" was again produced, and Mr. Whistler was further cross-examined by the attorney-general:

"The picture represents a distant view of Cremorne with a falling rocket and other fireworks. It occupied two days, and is a finished picture. The black monogram on the frame was placed in its position with reference to the proper decorative balance of the whole."

"You have made the study of Art your study of a lifetime. Now, do you think that anybody looking at that picture might fairly come to the conclusion that it had no peculiar beauty?"

"I have strong evidence that Mr. Ruskin did come to that conclusion."

"Do you think it fair that Mr. Ruskin should come to that conclusion?"

"What might be fair to Mr. Ruskin I cannot answer."

"Then you mean, Mr. Whistler, that the initiated in technical matters might have no difficulty in understanding your work. But do you think now that you could make me see the beauty of that picture?"

The witness then paused, and examining attentively the Attorney-General's face and looking at the picture alternately, said, after apparently giving the subject much thought, while the Court waited in silence for his answer.

"No! Do you know I fear it would be as hopeless as for the musician to pour his notes into the ear of a deaf man." (Laughter.)

"I offer the picture, which I have conscientiously painted, as being worth two hundred guineas. I have known unbiased people to express the opinion that it represents fireworks in a night-scene. I would not complain of any person who might simply take a different view."

The Court then adjourned.

Burne-Jones was later introduced as a witness, testifying that in his estimation two hundred guineas was too great a price to ask for the picture in dispute. Burne-Jones admitted that Whistler's work had beauty of color and atmosphere but he contended that it was largely unfinished, and sketchy in effect.

The jury awarded Whistler one shilling in damages, and this shilling Whistler ever afterwards wore upon his watchchain as a token of victory. Ruskin was condemned to pay the court costs, but these were met by a subscription started by his friends and admirers.

Underneath this humorous episode lay, however, a genuine artistic principle. Whistler differed from his contemporaries in his conception of his art, and his pictures such as the "Nocturne in Black and Gold" of the famous suit

were illustrations of his firm artistic conviction. What these principles of art were, find their best expression in Whistler's celebrated lecture "Ten O'clock," first delivered in London on February 20, 1885, and repeated a short time after at Cambridge and Oxford. A portion of this admirably written lecture will serve to explain Whistler's theory of art.

Nature contains the elements, in colour and form, of all pictures, as the keyboard contains the notes of all music.

But the artist is born to pick and choose, and group with science, these elements, that the result may be beautiful—as the musician gathers his notes, and forms his chords, until he bring forth from chaos glorious harmony.

To say to the painter, that Nature is to be taken as she is, is to say to the player, that he may sit on the piano.

That Nature is always right, is an assertion, artistically, as untrue, at it is one whose truth is universally taken for granted. Nature is very rarely right, to such an extent even, that it might almost be said that Nature is usually wrong: that is to say, the condition of things that shall bring about the perfection of harmony worth a picture is rare, and not common at all.

This would seem, to even the most intelligent, a doctrine almost blasphemous. So incorporated with our education has the supposed aphorism become, that its belief is held to be part of our moral being, and the words themselves have, in our ear, the ring of religion. Still, seldom does Nature succeed in producing a picture.

The sun blares, the wind blows from the east, the sky is bereft of cloud, and without all is of iron. The windows of the Crystal Palace are seen from all points of London. The holiday-maker rejoices in the glorious day, and the painter turns aside to shut his eyes.

How little this is understood, and how dutifully the casual in Nature is accepted as sublime, may be gathered from the unlimited admiration daily produced by a very foolish sunset.

The dignity of the snow-capped mountain is lost in the distinctness, but the joy of the tourist is to recognize the traveler on the top. The desire to see for the sake of seeing, is, with the mass, alone the one to be gratified, hence the delight in detail.

And when the evening mist clothes the riverside with poetry, as a veil, and the poor buildings lose themselves in the dim sky, and the tall chimneys become campanili, and the warehouses are palaces in the night, and the whole city hangs in the heavens, and fairy land is before us—then the wayfarer hastens home; the working man and the cultured one, the wise one and the one of pleasure, cease to understand, as they have ceased to see, and Nature, who, for once, has sung in tune, sings her exquisite song to the artist alone, her son and her master—her son in that he loves her, her master in that he knows her.

To him her secrets are unfolded, to him her lessons have become gradually clear. He looks at her flower, not with the enlarg-

ing lens, that he may gather facts for the botanist, but with the light of one who sees in her choice selection of brilliant tones and delicate tints, suggestions of future harmonies.

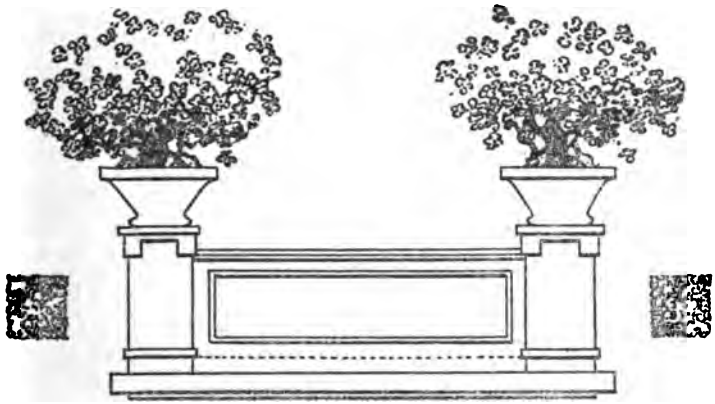
He does not confine himself to purposeless copying, without thought, each blade of grass, as commended by the inconsequent, but, in the long curve of the narrow leaf, corrected by the straight tall stem, he learns how grace is wedded to dignity, how strength enhances sweetness, that elegance shall be the result.

In the citron wing of the pale butterfly, with its dainty spots of orange, he sees before him the stately halls of fair gold, with their slendor saffron pillars, and is taught how the delicate drawing high upon the walls shall be traced in tender tones of oriment, and repeated by the base in notes of graver hue.

In all that is dainty and lovable he finds hints for his own combinations, and thus is Nature ever his resource and always at his service, and to him is naught refused.

Through his brain, as through the last alembic, is distilled the refined essence of that thought which began with the Gods, and which they left him to carry out.

Set apart by them to complete their works, he produces that wondrous thing called the masterpiece, which surpasses in perfection all that they have contrived in what is called Nature; and the Gods stand by and marvel, and perceive how far away more beautiful is the Venus of Melos than was their own Eve.



Edward Alexander MacDowell

Edward Alexander MacDowell, who died recently after an extended illness, was without question the greatest composer yet produced by this country. MacDowell, who was of a Quaker family of Scotch-Irish extraction, was born in 1861. His earliest musical training was gained under the instruction of several South American teachers, chief among whom was Teresa Carreño, who remained his life-long friend. This early training which was chiefly in piano playing was succeeded by ten years of study in Europe.

MacDowell first studied in France under Savard in composition and Marmontel in piano. He then went to Germany, studying under various famous teachers including Raff. The influence of the latter, who became his friend, is noticeable throughout his work. MacDowell during the course of his European study later met Liszt at Weimar and together with D'Albert played before him. From the years 1883 to 1887 he remained at Wiesbaden composing. At this time it was his intention to remain in Germany where he considered the musical atmosphere to be more congenial to composition than in America, but later he returned to Boston as a teacher and concert performer. In Boston he produced with the aid of the Boston Symphony Orchestra his two piano concertos.

In 1896 MacDowell was called to the Chair of Music in Columbia University, a position which he held until 1904, at which time he resigned after a dispute with the authorities over the status of music and the arts at the University. During his residence in New York MacDowell was for two years conductor of the Mendelssohn Glee Club, a celebrated male chorus, and for this organization he wrote a number of fine choral compositions for male voices. In 1905 his career was brought to an untimely end by a nervous breakdown which incapacitated him for further work and resulted recently in his death.

The late Edward MacDowell.

MacDowell was a romanticist in music and was a believer in what is called program music, that is, music which seeks the aid of words in producing its effects. Anticipating Dvorak in the utilization of American folk music MacDowell incorporated Indian melodies in his second orchestral suite known as the "Indian" suite. Several of these themes were taken from Iroquois songs and one from the music of the Iowas. This suite though not published until after Dvorak's "New World Symphony" was publicly performed had nevertheless been sketched out before the performance of that masterpiece, thus entitling it to a fair claim for the first use of American folk themes. Dvorak in his famous symphony takes the familiar negro melody of "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot," and makes a theme of it in a most masterly manner.

MacDowell's works are various, including symphonic poems for orchestra, many piano compositions, orchestral suites, and a considerable number of songs and choruses. Many of these songs are of the utmost beauty and will long remain a priceless heritage in American music. One, "The Sea," an arrangement for the poem of that name written by William Dean Howells is perhaps the best known and most effective. "The Sea" is, it is claimed, one of the greatest songs in the literature of the entire world. It is not a difficult composition and from it amateur music lovers may gain a very adequate conception of MacDowell's power and genius.

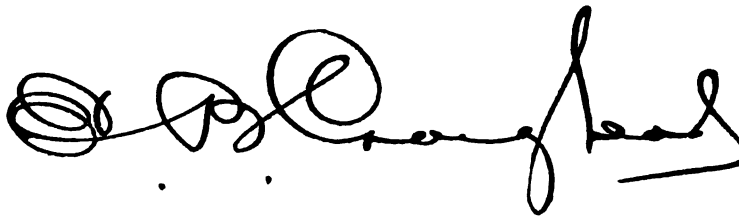
Greeting to C. L. S. C. Readers From the President of Tulane University.

There was a time when a deep gulf separated the educated classes from the great mass of humanity. Only once in the history of the world have the advantages of a University education been within the reach of every citizen, and that was in ancient Athens. In Athens, it is true, there was no University in the modern sense of the word, but the whole city was to the citizens of that commonwealth a University. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that educational advantages were open only to the Athenian citizens; for every educated citizen there were ten slaves, ignorant and degraded.

In America, educational advantages are more nearly within the reach of all classes and conditions of men than ever before in the history of the world. This is due in large measure to our great public school system. It is due also to the fact that great movements like the so-called Chautauqua movement--the first systematic effort in this country to give the masses some taste for higher learning--has brought the educated class into

touch with the masses. Among the powerful agencies that have helped to awaken in the minds of the multitude a love for the higher intellectual pursuits, there is, perhaps, no one thing that has counted for more than the Reading Courses outlined by the experts in charge of Chautauqua. These Reading Courses have given to multitudes of people an outlook upon the higher and better things of life and they have awakened in many persons an insatiable thirst for knowledge and a desire for a rounded education such as no University alone can give.

The University owes a great debt of gratitude to the Chautauqua Institution.



OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE
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MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, *Executive Secretary.*

"For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
Comes silent, flooding in, the main.

"And not by eastern windows only,
When daylight comes, comes in the light;
In front, the sun climbs slow, how slowly!
But westward, look, the land is bright."—*Clough.*

Every great movement for moral progress has to experience its ebb as well as its flood tide. Yet the tide can be counted on in the long run as certainly as the sun rises. International Peace Day, May 18, which the C. L. S. C. observes as one of its Memorial Days, gives to readers and circles an opportunity to note the development of the great international movement for Peace. Many of our newspapers and periodicals have given discouraging reports of the last Hague conference, but because the gains seem to have fallen short of popular expectation there is all the more reason for noting the real evidences of progress which this meeting made evident. The spectacular journey of our battleships to the Pacific is picturesquely exploited by the daily press, but we hear little of the fact that the Council of the Elder Statesmen of Japan on the very day that our

warships started, decided to reduce the military expenses of Japan $200,000,000 during the next six years. Our great country must build four new battleships, but little Japan is cutting down her war budget. The "Advocate of Peace" asks the pertinent question, "Are we hereafter to have to write down Japan as *first in peace?* Things are looking that way."

INDICATIONS OF PROGRESS.

There are many encouraging indications of progress in the world's attitude toward peace. Chautauqua readers who through their study of "Newer Ideals" this year have been giving heed to the social forces which make for brotherhood are in a position to exert much influence. Our churches are the natural allies of the peace movement, and ministers have very commonly signified their readiness to coöperate in carrying out ideals of education emphasized by Chautauqua. As Monday, May 18, is International Peace Day, Chautauqua Circles might through the pastors of various churches in the community arrange for a Sunday evening union service on May 17. Many suggestions for a program will be found in the Round Tables of the April CHAUTAUQUANS for 1905, 1906, and 1907. Special emphasis should be laid upon recent developments which can be learned by sending 25 cents to the American Peace Society, Boston, Mass., and asking for the "Advocate of Peace" for January and February, 1908, and pamphlets on "A Periodic Congress of the Nations," "The Churches and the Peace Movement," and "The Successes and Failures of the Second Hague Conference."

NOBEL PEACE PRIZE FOR 1907.

The Nobel Peace prize for 1907 was divided between two men, E. T. Moneta of Italy, and Professor Louis Renault of France. Mr. Moneta has for more than thirty years been the leading spirit in the peace movement in Italy. He is president of the Lombard Peace Union, one of the strongest peace societies in Europe, and organized a peace exhibit for the Milan Exposition in 1906 which

was remarkably effective. Professor Renault is professor of International Law in the University of Paris and was one of the French delegates to both the first and second conferences.

OTHER RECIPIENTS OF THE NOBEL PEACE PRIZE.

The first award of the Nobel peace prize in 1901 was divided between Frederic Passy of France and Henri Dunant of Switzerland. In 1902 it was divided between M. Elie Ducommun and Dr. A. Gobat. The Institute of International Law received it in 1903, William R. Cremer, M. P., in 1904, Baroness von Suttner in 1905, and President Roosevelt in 1906.

THE COMING MODERN EUROPEAN YEAR IN THE C. L. S. C.

Our readers will be interested in this connection to note that in the coming Modern European Year in the C. L. S. C. year, a remarkable series of articles will be published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, entitled "The Friendship of Nations." These will take up the questions uppermost in modern Europe today in the light of recent history. Some of the results brought out will be of a very striking character. The topics treated in this series will be, in general, as follows:

1. The European Equilibrium. 2. Danger Points of Conflict around the Globe. 3. Special interest of the United States in International Peace. 4. United States of Europe? World Federation. 5. The Wastes of War. 6. Rise of Peace Sentiment. 7. What is International Law? 8. The Hague Tribunal. Why the Hague was Chosen, etc. 9. Modern economic and social forces against war: Trade and Commerce, Transportation and Communication, International Aspects of Socialism, Intermarriages, The Arts, Attempts at a Universal Language, International Societies—Scientific, Educational, etc.

CLASS OF 1908.

Last summer the class appointed Miss Una B. Jones as a special committee of one to look up pictures relating to Tennyson which might be arranged in an effective group in the class room. The following letter is the result of her preliminary investigations. Some members may be able to make helpful suggestions. Miss Jones is following up

various possibilities and the 1908's may be assured of interesting results next summer:

"Dear Fellow Chautauquans:

"It is my pleasant duty to look up and obtain Tennyson portraits for the Class of 1908, to be used in our classroom. I should like suggestions of any member's favorite portrait. We could use effectively a large portrait and two panels containing other portraits, etc.

"Watts' portraits of 1859 and 1888 are good, also Mayall's, Cameron's, Barrand's, Rejlander's, and Lawrence's. Photographs of Somersby Rectory, Farringford, Aldworth, Lady Tennyson, and others, would also be interesting.

"Can anyone tell me where I may obtain some of these portraits?

"Wishing you all a prosperous year and hoping to meet you next summer, I am Sincerely yours,

"UNA B. JONES, Stittville, N. Y."

A very enthusiastic letter from a member of the Class of 1908, a public school principal in Alabama, states that he has his three annual certificates duly framed and hung in his office. He says, "Of course I am ready to do anything for the class. I am going to pledge one one-hundredth of this year's salary to be divided proportionally for the banner, tablet, and room in the Hall. If that is not enough, I can give more." This is a specimen of the class spirit which is sure to reveal itself in class correspondence during the next few months.

One of the '08's from Binghamton, New York, writes that she has just discovered two classmates in a suburb of that city. She has thus far done all her reading alone and this opportunity to talk over class affairs is quite delightful. They are all planning to be at Chautauqua for graduation.

The Class Secretary and Treasurer feels not only the financial responsibility resting upon the class but appreciates also the spiritual benefit which those who accept and enjoy responsibilities gain! She writes:

"Perhaps our class do not all know that we want to raise $250 for our class room, $50 for our banner and $100 for our tablet in the Hall of Philosophy, and that any member wishing to help may send a contribution to the treasurer. I find that people who have never been to Chautauqua know nothing about the class

home there and its privileges. They are only too glad to contribute as soon as they really understand about it."

As a specimen of the class tablets, members of '80 may see in the October CHAUTAUQUAN a view of the '82 tablet, the first to be placed in the Hall. The classes of 1905 and 1910 will place theirs this summer and 1908 can also be included if the necessary funds come in. More members of the class will be at Chautauqua this year than ever again and it will be a great thing if they can all see their tablet. These tablets form a mosaic pattern on the floor of the beautiful Hall of Philosophy and add greatly to its artistic effect. The address of the class treasurer is Miss S. E. Ford, 169 Court street, Binghamton, New York.

AN OMISSION.

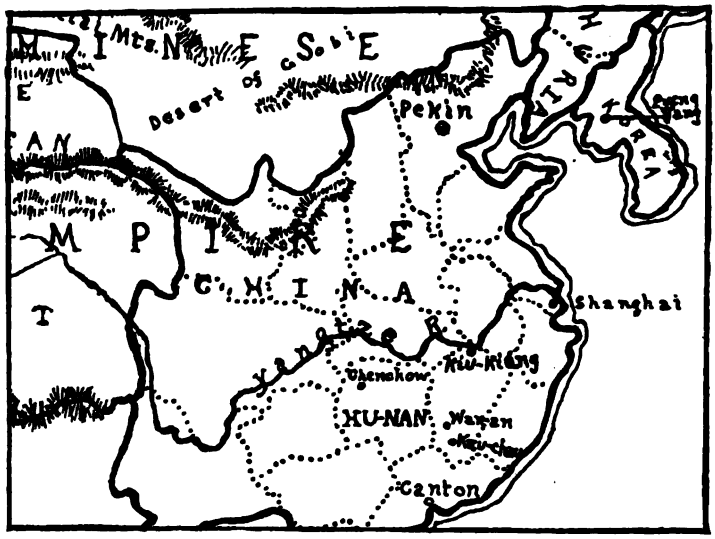
Apologies are due our readers for the omission in the January CHAUTAUQUAN of review questions on Chapter XI of "As Others See Us."

Miss Spencer's inability to furnish her manuscript for this number necessitated the insertion of an additional chapter of Mr. Brooks' series after the remaining forms of the magazine had gone to press.

THE C. L. S. C. IN THE FAR EAST.

The accompanying map of China shows in the province of Hunan and the adjoining one of Kiang Si, the points where Chautauqua has had representatives during the past year. They seem few and scattered when compared with the vastness of the Empire, and one can realize how far distant from western influences these readers and their Chautauqua neighbors off in Pyeng Yang, Korea, must feel. In a recent letter from Chenchow the two members of the Class of 1909, in the great province of Hunan report progress:

Your letter of July 15 is at hand. Missionaries lead an intensely busy life, and also one of social isolation. This is especially true when one lives at a distance from all railways, steamships, and telegraph communication with the



outside world. Mrs. Derr and I have found the Chautauqua readings of the Class of 1909 a great help to us in relieving the limitations of our social and intellectual life, and in keeping up many of the subjects which we studied in our college course. I try to read one chapter or a magazine article each day, and have thus read all the books once and some of them several times. They are all profitable and interesting. The Chautauqua Circle offers the busy man a great opportunity to get and keep in touch with the world's life and thought. I have found the readings invaluable.

Yours truly CHAS. H. DERR.

Chenchow, So. Hunan, China, December 4, 1907.

A GREETING FROM THE PRESIDENT OF 1911.

The editor of the Round Table had hoped to introduce the members of 1911 to their class president by means of a photograph, but advices from Miss Merington state that the only picture available is "prehistoric." Later on we may hope for one faithfully representing a later period. Meanwhile seizing a brief moment from the exacting de-

mands of school duties Miss Merington sends this letter of greeting:

535 Massachusetts Ave.,
Buffalo, N. Y., March 25, 1908.

To the Class of 1911:

My Dear Friends and Classmates:—Do you realize that the sun has been wheeling his course to the north these many days and that before long summer will be close upon us? Up to this time our class has done but little towards making itself the strong organization that it ought to be. Our name is decided, we are the Longfellow Class; but we have no motto, no flower or emblem, no design for our banner, and not as much money in the treasury as there should be, considering our excellent registration.

Won't you who are scattered all over the world, unite yourselves more closely with us who are privileged to live near the fountain-head? Even if you cannot meet with us to drink of the clear, cool Chautauqua springs this summer, you can identify yourself with the class by helping in the choice of motto, emblem, and banner; and if you have a spare dollar our treasurer would be delighted to receive it. We have a banner to buy and a room in the C. L. S. C. building to maintain; not heavy responsibilities but requiring cash to meet them.

And members who are within traveling distance, do not wait until August to make your preferences known. Let committees hear through me what you want for our legend, our flower, and our flag, and something of your summer plans. Many of our classmates will meet at other Chautauquas and if you who gather before the first of August, will take time to hold a class meeting or two and send a message of advice and greeting to the class at Chautauqua it will be greatly appreciated. The members assembled there will feel their responsibility and will try to live up to it. We shall have delightful 4 o'clock teas, and informal talks, and even better class-meetings than we held in 1907.

Greetings and good wishes to you all from

Mary E. Merington,
President Class of 1911.

A QUERY.

A member who has been looking over the C. L. S. C. Special Courses and has been attracted to their possibilities asks if she may borrow the books from a neighbor, or must they be bought of the Institution. The answer to this question is that all members everywhere are at liberty to get their books wherever they can do so most conveniently, whether they buy them or borrow them. The

Chautauqua Press at Chautauqua, New York, aims to serve such C. L. S. C. members as have no opportunities to secure books through local dealers or who feel that Chautauqua's familiarity with the various editions suitable for different C. L. S. C. courses gives the Press special facilities for filling such orders. The Press will at any time look up prices or secure special editions of any books in which C. L. S. C. members may be interested.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MAY.

FIRST WEEK: APRIL 28-MAY 5.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." Chapter 16; "Signs of Progress" to page 191.
In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction." Chapter V-VIII; "Types in the South."

SECOND WEEK: MAY 5-12.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." Chapter 16: "Signs of Progress," concluded.
In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction." Chapters IX and X: "Types in the South."

THIRD WEEK: MAY 12-19.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "American Painting." Chapter VII: "Figure Painting."
In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction." Chapters XI-XIV: "Types in the Mississippi Valley."

FOURTH WEEK: MAY 19-26.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "American Painting." Chapter VIII: "Mural Decoration."
In the Required Book: "Provincial Types in American Fiction." Chapters XV-XVII: "Types in the Far West."

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

Review and Discussion of first half of "As Others See Us," Chapter 16.

Reading: Selections from Durland's "Jewish Farm Colonies in America," in this magazine.

Study of "Colonel Carter" and one of Thomas Nelson Page's stories. Bliss Perry in his "Study of Prose Fiction" suggests the following points which circles and readers may find it interesting to work out:

The Plot: 1. What are the main lines of action in the story? 2. How many leading characters are there? 3. Note the incidents which are introduced simply to inform the reader, either as to what is going on, or give him further insight into the nature of the characters? 4. Discriminate between such explanatory incidents and those which really develop the characters themselves. 5. What stage of the story marks its climax? 6. Is the climax seemingly brought about by some trifling incident as often happens? 7. Has the story a subordinate plot? If so, what is its character? Does it simply reflect the main plot, or is it necessary in order to justify some feature of the main plot, or is it merely introduced to give variety?

The Setting of the Story: 1. Have the incidents of the story a historical background? If so, how far is this background true to the facts? 2. Is the "local color" faithful, that is, true to conditions characteristic of the locality where the scene of the story is laid? 3. Do the characters and incidents deal especially with a certain general class, i. e., the rich, the poor, the army, some special racial group, etc. 4. What is the relation of natural scenery to the story? Is it given much prominence? Has it close connection with the action of the story? Has it any direct effect upon the characters themselves? 5. Is the setting of the story so important as to give a unity to it?

The Author: 1. Who is the author? 2. What has been his experience of life? 3. What sort of people has he known? 4. Does he impress you as a thinker? 5. How does he compare with some of his contemporaries in this respect? 6. How does he express emotion? 7. Is he skilful in describing actual scenes and events? 8. Is he equally so in depicting personalities? 9. Has he a tendency to represent the world of mystery? 10. Does he strive to show a connection between natural phenomena and spiritual forces? 11. Has he a sense of humor? How shown? 12. Has he sympathy?

Roll Call: Answered by quotations from the Uncle Remus Stories.

Readings: From "Uncle Remus."

SECOND WEEK.

Review and Discussion of remainder of "As Others See Us," Chapter 16.

Review with reading of selections of article on John Fiske in this magazine.

Roll Call: Significant quotations from different works by John Fiske.

Study of Typical works by George W. Cable and Charles Egbert Craddock. The Circle may if desired be divided into two groups each taking up the work of the two authors mentioned according to suggestions in previous program. Three members of each group may be appointed to report on the "plot," "setting" and "author," each report being followed by discussion.

THIRD WEEK.

Roll Call: Answered by definitions of the following art terms: value, tone, chiaroscuro, genre, luminarist, texture, composition, atmosphere, perspective.

Review of Chapter on "Figure Painting" with study of pictures supplemented by any additional copies that may be secured from magazine articles.

Paper: Mark Twain. (See numerous Magazine Articles in recent years.)

Study of one or more of the stories illustrating Mississippi Types of American Provincial Life. (See suggestions in previous program.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Brief talk on the principles of Mural Decoration.

Brief survey of History of Mural Decoration in this country. (See articles by R. Sturgis and W. Walton in *Scribner's Magazine* for January, 1899, and November, 1906.)

Roll Call: What subjects are especially suitable for American Mural Decoration? Each member should be assigned in advance a certain type of building in a given city and decide what subject he or she would use in decorating the building. Among the typical buildings might be taken churches, libraries, banks, department stores, a building in a city park, juvenile court building, chamber of commerce, high school chapel, college gymnasium, a hospital, orphan asylum, etc. The character of the city assigned as well as that of the building might enter into the decision. Secretaries of circles are asked to note the suggestions offered by members and send them to the Round Table Editor.

Study of all available illustrations of American Mural Decoration. In the magazine articles listed in the bibliography many pictures supplementing THE CHAUTAUQUAN series will be found. Note especially how these paintings are treated. Have they Academic characteristics? These are indicated in: careful drawing, exact balance, use of symbolism, lack of touch with American life, absence of personality.

Paper: Life and Work of John LaFarge. (See bibliography.)

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US."

CHAPTER XVI: "SIGNS OF PROGRESS."

1. Why are we unable as a country to prove our progress in terms of happiness? 2. What does our author consider "the most impressive fact in the South?" Compare his view with those of foreign critics. 3. What signs of industrial progress does the South show? 4. What may be said of the best side of the colored race? 5. What real benefits have come from our increased facili-

The Outlook Circle's snap shot of Mr. Burroughs, Miss Arnold, Mr. Rowland, and Rover at Slabsides.

Members of the Outlook Circle of Mt. Vernon, N. Y., en route for John Burroughs' home on the Hudson.

"Slabsides" from the celery patch.

ties for traveling? 6. Give instances of the discomfort and danger incident to travel before the war. 7. How does our present attitude toward the dangers of travel show social progress? 8. Show how wages have increased and also how standards of living have improved. 9. What comments of foreigners show the former low state of health of the average American woman? 10. What relation does this seem to have to the quality of our voices? 11. What influences are likely to bring about further improvement in the American voice? 12. How did our earlier visitors regard our democratic government in its effect upon the growth of our higher faculties? 13. What examples of our progress in sculpture, science and music may be given? 14. Why, in spite of child labor and poverty, may one still speak of progress?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who were the Borgias? 2. With what famous journal was E. L. Godkin connected? 3. Who is Walter L. Page? 4. With what great achievement is John Hay's name associated?

AMERICAN PAINTING. CHAPTER VII: "FIGURE PAINTING."

1. What is meant in general by figure painting? 2. What subjects did our earlier artists choose for figure painting? 3. The influence of what countries appeared in their work? 4. What are the elements of the language of painting? 5. What are some of the things to be noted in the study of the art of figure painting? 6. What can be said of the "values" of the European masters upon whose work our early American painters founded their methods? 7. What change in methods came in with French training? 8. What qualities have given the title "Academic" to the French school? 9. Give some distinguishing traits of the work of Dewing, Thayer, Brush and Kendall. 10. Why is the work of Miss Cassatt worthy of special attention? 11. Why does the work of Elihu Vedder take high rank among American painters? 12. What is true of the position held by Gari Melchers?

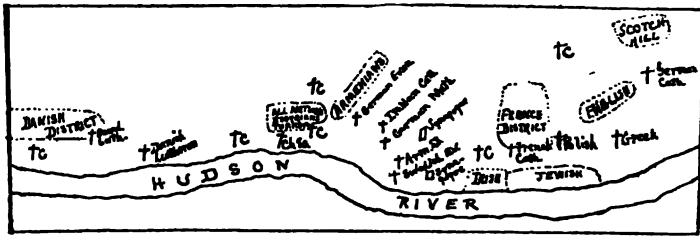
CHAPTER VIII: "MURAL DECORATION."

1. Why is the work of William M. Hunt of great importance in the history of American art? 2. Why is the date 1876 significant in our art annals? 3. What great achievements has Mr. LaFarge already accomplished? 4. What are some of the principles underlying the art of mural decoration? 5. What great mural paintings have been executed by Sargent? 6. By Abbey? 7. Why is Puvis de Chavannes to be mentioned in this connection? 8. Describe the recent growth of the movement for mural decoration? 9. What men have done notable mural work and in what buildings?

(For answers to Search Questions see end of Round Table.)

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

A large blue print map posted conspicuously on the wall attracted the attention of the delegates to the Round Table as they took their places. The blue print proved to be the chart of some city, the presence of the Hudson River indicating that it repre-



Race map of Troy, N. Y., xc indicates Irish Catholic Church.

sented the habitat of a circle in New York State. "I will satisfy your curiosity at once," said Pendragon, "by introducing the delegate from Troy, New York, who will explain the map. I suppose that Troy is in some respects a typical American manufacturing town. It is certainly a striking illustration of the conglomeration of races and religious beliefs which is becoming more and more characteristic of our population." "You will observe from our map," responded the delegate, Miss Roach, "that the different nationalities are pretty well scattered through the town. Our city engineer made the map for us and we looked up the race distribution and marked it as you see. There are only a few sections of the city which are almost wholly given up to a single nationality, as for instance the Danish, Armenian, French, English, and Hebrew quarters, but we have indicated the churches attended by foreigners and these give an idea of the various groups which are sufficiently strong to have churches of their own. Two of the members of the Circle teach in the Y. M. C. A. night school and among the sixty or more foreigners registered there we find in addition to the nationalities indicated on this map, Maltese, Russian, Dutch, Syrian, Austrian, Bohemian, Swiss, Turkish, Hungarian, and Norwegian students. It really seems as if all the world had come to us. We are very glad to make this investigation of our community as suggested in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and should like to see the charts of some other towns. Our circle really had a desperate time getting started this year, not for lack of interest but on account of conflicting events. Now we are having delightful meetings with the poets and since January have been diligently making up for lost time."

"While we are studying the Hudson River region," commented Pendragon, "you may like to see these additional photographs sent by the Outlook Circle of Mt. Vernon, giving a glimpse of the famous river and one or two other views taken on the Circle's trip to Slabsides."

"The Troy Circle's analysis of their town recalls an analysis of occupations recently made in our circle," remarked the delegate from Warren, Ohio. "Our Robert Browning Circle is as you know one of the largest of the Chautauqua Circles. We have twelve men among our active members. Two of these are ministers, two are mail carriers, and the other eight represent the following trades and professions: machinist, butcher, fruit vender, musician, dentist, electrician, student, and editor. We have tried to make our circle an educational influenec in the community and call attention to its work constantly in the newspapers. We also try to foster class spirit and at a recent meeting we assigned to the members of the Class of 1910 in the circle a review of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table' which was conducted with much spirit. On the fourteenth of February we were delighted to have a lecture from Dr. George E. Vincent, the President, as you know, of Chautauqua Institution. He spoke in the First Methodist Church on 'Phases of Chautauqua Work.' A section of the church was reserved for our circle and for the Chautauqua Alumni Association, but the lecture was free to everyone. At its close we held a delightful reception for we had a fine audience in spite of the fact that the rain fell in torrents."

The president of the C. L. S. C. Alumni of the two Kansas Cities handed Pendragon a program of the C. L. S. C. Alumni Banquet held in Kansas City, Missouri, in February. "We are still alluding to the time when Dr. Vincent spoke at our annual banquet," she said. "We couldn't have him with us this year but we had greetings by letter from his father, the Chancellor, from Dr. Vincent himself, and from Miss Kimball. It proved to be a most enjoyable occasion. Seventy-five plates were set, the decorations were pink and white carnations and the toasts were all exceptionally good and spicy! We feel that we were honored in having with us five members of the Pioneer Class of '82. Our Alumni association takes a good deal of pains to cultivate the local circles and get them to come into closer touch with each other and with the literary club life of the city. It also aims to give its members an opportunity to meet some of our prominent Chautauqua educators. We are now planning to entertain Bishop Warren."

"I may mention just here," said Pendragon, "a recent letter from the Altrurian Circle of Kansas City in which they say 'Our Circle is growing in interest and enthusiasm. We have now about eighteen members.' You will all regret to learn," he continued, "that the Brooklyn, N. Y., Alumni, one of our oldest and largest organizations has recently lost its president, Mr. John A. Straley. Mr. Straley was also for some years president of the Brooklyn Chau-

Exposition upon artists who here for the first time tested their powers in this new field. The American public also began to perceive something of the national possibilities of mural painting. Miss King's comments upon the decorations in the Boston Public Library, the Library of Congress, the Walker Art Gallery in Brunswick, Maine, the Mendelssohn Glee Club and Appellate Court Buildings in New York, aided by the abundant illustrations, give the reader some perception of the different qualities of the artists whose work is beginning to occupy such an important place in the estimation of the public. Since this book was published the unique decorations of J. W. Alexander in the Carnegie Library at Pittsburg and other important commissions must be added to the list. It is a surprising record, one worth careful study for it suggests possibilities of still greater things in the future of American Art.

ON THE TRAIL OF THE IMMIGRANT. By Edward A. Steiner. Pp. 360. $1.50 net. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

A rarely interesting and picturesque volume is this book by Dr. Steiner. It is true also that no book on the immigrant question gives one so strongly the feeling of having seen the whole situation for one brief space under the clear illumination of a searchlight. Dr. Steiner, who is an Austrian Jew by birth, entered the Congregational ministry. He has had years of experience as a preacher and as a lecturer on social questions. He has crossed the ocean in the steerage many times. He understands the home life and appreciates the possibilities of the immigrant. The book analyzes the different types of foreigner with a wealth of fresh and picturesque illustrative details. It shows the tragedies which await many of the immigrants in the industrial conditions in this country, and the need for intelligence on the part of older Americans in their treatment of the newcomer. As we read the record one almost wonders that these foreigners are not hopelessly disillusioned, but the chapter entitled "In the Second Cabin" shows that with what seems scarcely half a chance they are ready to give their new homes all possible credit. No American can follow the trail of the immigrant without a sense of humiliation at his own provincialism, more respect for his new fellow countrymen and a greater realization of the grave nature of the many industrial and social problems which confront America.

THE SOCIAL IDEALS OF ALFRED TENNYSON. By William Clark Gordon. The University of Chicago. Press, 1906. 257 pages. Net $1.00.

This is a readable book though originally written as a thesis for the degree of doctor of philosophy. It is written from a point of view which should be more generally adopted, the point of view

which shows its interest in literature by studying its social genesis. One should expect to find chapters which reveal this, on Tennyson's time, Tennyson's idea of man, of the work and worth of women, of the family, of society and social institutions, of democracy, and progress. No one who reads the modern poets with attention but has felt the lack of some scientific work in pursuing just these lines of thought.

THE HEBREW LITERATURE OF WISDOM IN THE LIGHT OF TODAY. Synthesis by John F. Genung. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.00 net.

The work of Professor John F. Genung as an expounder of literature has been gratefully received by many modern readers. Those who did not know that he was a clergyman before he became a professor will be surprised at his latest book. It is a welcome addition to the Biblical study which has been made of general interest by the recent work of Professor R. G. Moulton among other lay writers. Professor Genung's title is well chosen. "In the Light of Today" he discusses the Proverbs, Job, Ecclesiastes, the wisdom of Solomon, the discourses and parables of Jesus, and in a charming concluding chapter the substance and thought of James "as between brothers."

Professor Genung has a faculty for getting at the heart of things and the gift of making his conclusions plain. These are the reasons why his last book should be widely read.

AN ATLAS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY: Earl W. Dow of the University of Michigan (Henry Holt & Company, 1907). $1.50.

This compact little atlas promises to fill a need felt by students of history who want to be able to refer readily to one country or another without the necessity for consulting many small volumes or one unwieldly atlas. Mr. Dow's book includes some thirty maps which are not unduly cumbered with details, yet are so carefully classified that the student can trace clearly important historical developments.

WAGE EARNERS' BUDGETS. Louise Bolard More. Pp. 280. 8½x5½. Henry Holt & Co.

A book of interest and value to students of economic and social conditions among our working population, whether native or foreign born—not of dependents but of those who maintain themselves above that grade. It attempts to reveal, by its admirable studies, tables, etc., as much as possible of the facts bearing on "the whole question of labor and wages, housing conditions, the rent problem, the cost of living, the economies and extravagances of the poor, their provisions for the future and for death, and, in outline, the whole story of the struggle for existence under the conditions of modern [New York] city life."

THE RED REIGN. Kellogg Durland. Pp. 533. 8¼x5½. The Century Company. $2.00 net.

Truth sometimes has an exaggerated sound. The things that this book relates, if they were first intimations of the state of Russia under its autocracy, would be received with utter disbelief. They are, however, the report of an investigator whose mission was to verify or prove false the declarations of former witnesses. He had the recognition of such publications as *Harper's, Collier's, The New York Evening Post, The Boston Transcript, The Review of Reviews, The Independent,* all of which gave space to his letters or other writings. He tells what he saw with no effort to influence sentiment unduly, nor to harrow the feelings; yet tells things which are almost unthinkable. Mr. Durland enjoyed most exceptional opportunity to travel throughout the Russian Empire, to meet intimately with prominent reactionaries, revolutionary leaders, and simple peasants. He went with open eyes for the really significant things and gives them in the manner of a faithful investigator, though betraying human sympathies which are inevitable to writer and reader alike. He finds the system of restraints "peculiarly effective" and the position of the autocracy therefore "tenable for a surprising time," but declares that "a trifling incident might turn the scales in a night."

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHY. I. Woodbridge Riley. Pp. 594. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50 net.

The author of this volume, the first in a proposed series, is "Johnston Research Scholar in Johns Hopkins University. Some Time Professor in the University of New Brunswick." He has here covered the period from the landing of the Pilgrims to the advent of Emerson, his thesis being to disprove de Tocqueville's remark that Americans not only "had no philosophical school of their own" but "cared little for the schools into which Europe was divided." The work, original in its canvassing of large masses of material, cannot but be of value to those who, interested in Philosophy generally, are prompted to inquire what reflections of European speculation have prevailed in this country, and what native philosophy, if any, has been produced in America.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

The Magazine of System in Reading

The Chautauquan contains many attractive features this, its twenty-eighth, year—a study in American topics:

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The Library Shelf gives as heretofore many interesting side-lights on the readings of the year. The Vesper Hour conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent is an important feature, and the Round Table and Highways and Byways add much in the way of contemporary criticism, suggestions for the guidance of students, etc. Still further, such "Helps and Hints" for home study as were heretofore put in a separate "Membership Book" and offered only on payment of a separate fee, are now incorporated in the magazine, for the benefit of all readers.

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CONTENTS FOR MAY, 1908

The Late Augustus Saint-Gaudens ..... Frontispiece

Highways and Byways 373

National Political Developments Foreshadowing the Party Issues, Labor, the Law and the Courts. Economic Congress at Chautauqua. The New Michigan Constitution. Open Market and Federal Power. Prohibition and Intemperate Controversy. Woman's Labor and the State. Note and Comment.

As Others See Us ..... John Graham Brooks 387

XVI. Signs of Progress (Concluded).

American Painting ..... George Breed Esq. 395

IX. Contemporary Landscape Painters.

William James 407

Some Great American Scientists ..... Garrett P. Serviss 411

IX. Luther Burbank.

Child Labor and Vagrancy ..... Phillip Davis 416

How Connecticut Got Her Women Factory Inspector ..... Belle Lowman Fischer 422

Augustus Saint-Gaudens 431

Library Shelf 433

Some Nature Books.

C. L. S. C. Round Table ..... Conducted by Kate F. Kimball 442

Talk About Books 462

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The late Augustus St. Gaudens.

(See "Augustus St. Gaudens," page 430.)

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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THE most interesting development in the national political situation that the last few weeks have brought forth is the formation of the Independence party by Mr. W. R. Hearst and his followers. Mr. Hearst has had municipal and state leagues and tickets, and in some places he has had considerable success, whether of the positive or the negative sort. He has elected his candidates, and has defeated candidates who might otherwise have been successful by dividing the radical and Democratic vote. But this year he for the first time in his career attempts political action on a national scale. And it is widely admitted that he and the Independence party may prove an important factor in the presidential campaign and election.

The need of another party does not seem great. Indeed, few outside of the Hearst following admit that it exists at all. The Republicans are led by men like Roosevelt, Taft, and Hughes, and there is no danger that any reactionary will be nominated by that organization. In the Democratic party Mr. Bryan is the strongest candidate and the probable nominee, notwithstanding the movement in favor of Gov. John A. Johnson of Minnesota, who has been indorsed for the presidency by the Democratic committee of his state, and whose boom has been gaining strength in some sections. The platforms of the two great parties will certainly be advanced and progressive. The average man will have no occasion for "bolting" this year, and if any element needs a new party, it is the ultra-con-

servative element, that finds little comfort in either of the great parties.

As to the smaller parties, they will be neither few nor insignificant this year. The Populists will have their ticket and platform, the Prohibitionists will make an aggressive national campaign, the Socialists will be in the field and expect an increased vote. What place, then, it is asked, is there for the Independence party?

This question must be left unanswered. But the party has been called into existence, and it will nominate its own presidential ticket. Its platform is eclectic; it draws from Republican, Democratic, and Populist principles with equal freedom. It is intended to appeal to "Lincoln Republicans" as well as to "Jeffersonian Democrats," according to its framers. How many votes it will attract, and from which party it will draw most of its strength, time will tell. The feeling is that it will injure the Democrats, especially in the doubtful states, more than it will the Republicans, but much will depend on the progress of the campaign henceforth.

Here are some of the things which the new party favors:

Tariff revision along liberal but protectionist lines; an income tax; immediate nationalization of the telegraph lines and gradual progress toward nationalization of all other public utilities, including the railroads; wide use of the referendum; the eight-hour day; national incorporation laws; postal savings banks; popular election of federal senators and judges; ship subsidies; a strong navy, and canal and river improvement on a generous scale.

On the whole, the platform is considered rather "moderate" for its authors, but Mr. Hearst has been urging care and political conservatism of late in the interest of the industries and commerce and credit of the country. His attitude has been a subject of much speculation, and the nominations of the Independence party will intensify the interest and uncertainty of the next national campaign.

Foreshadowing the Party Issues

The feeling has been very strong and general that nothing really substantial now divides the Republican and Democratic parties. The humorous talk of the press regarding the "stealing" of Bryan's "clothes" by Mr. Roosevelt, or vice versa, gives superficial expression to this feeling. What, then, will be the issues of the next campaign? Will they be purely personal, or will they have some reference to material differences of party view and position? Of course, such questions as these will be largely answered by the national platforms of the parties. Those declarations will necessarily bring out all the differences, as well as the points of agreement, between them. But it is not necessary to wait in complete uncertainty and suspense for the answers.

By common consent the Ohio Republican platform and the Nebraska Democratic platform foreshadow and forestall the respective national platforms. The Ohio platform had been submitted to and approved by Secretary Taft, whom the Republicans of that state indorsed for the presidential nomination (the Foraker faction having been defeated in advance of the convention), while the Nebraska platform had received the sanction of Mr. Bryan. Moreover, nothing is likely to change the political situation between now and the dates of the national conventions. Party doctrine today will be party doctrine in June. From this point of view it is well to compare the platforms just named —at least as regards the major planks.

The Tariff.—The Ohio platform favors revision along protectionist lines and the elimination of excessive and unreasonable rates of duty that oppress the consumer without legitimately encouraging industry or helping labor. The Nebraska platform declares flatly for a revenue tariff and for placing on the free list of all products that are controlled by American trusts.

Trusts and Railroad Control.—The Ohio platform approves the Hepburn railroad act and demands "the

strengthening of the supervisory powers of the interstate commerce commission, the prosecution of illegal interests, monopolies, and evil doers, both in the public service and in the commercial world." The Nebraska platform demands legislation suppressing all private monopoly, and by private monopoly is meant any combination or corporation that controls more than fifty per cent. of the products it deals in. It also favors federal licensing of all corporations that control over twenty-five per cent. of such products, but the federal license is to be added to, not substituted for, state control and regulation. The railroad plank in the same platform is explicit and drastic. It reads as follows:

> We demand such an enlargement of powers of National and State railway commissions as may be necessary to give full protection to persons and places from discrimination and extortion. We believe that both the Nation and the various States should first ascertain the present value of the railroads, measured by the cost of reproduction; second, prohibit the issue of any more watered stock or fictitious capitalization; third, prohibit the railroads from engaging in any business which brings them into competition with their shippers; and, fourth, reduce transportation rates until they reach a point where they will yield only a reasonable return on the present value of the roads—such reasonable return being defined as a return sufficient to keep the stock of the roads at par when such roads are honestly capitalized.

FINANCE.—The Ohio platform favors cautious currency legislation along the lines of the now familiar proposals for emergency credit circulation properly secured. The Nebraska platform condemns both the Aldrich and the Fowler bills and demands that the government itself shall issue whatever emergency currency may be needed from time to time. This is called "greenbackism" by the anti-Bryan organs and by the Republicans.

PHILIPPINES.—The Republican platform approves what has been done in and for the islands and contemplates gradual extension of self-government. The Democratic platform is "for an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to recognize the independence of the Philippines as soon as a stable government can be established."

The Democratic platform favors income and inheritance taxes, an eight-hour day, restriction of injunctions, a law

against gambling in stocks, direct election of federal senators, an employer's liability law, postal savings banks, restriction of Asiatic immigration. The Ohio platform does not mention income and inheritance taxes, eight hours, and election of senators, but indorses employers' liability legislation and restriction of the use of the injunction.

The general feeling is that the differences between these platforms are by no means negligible, though by no means as vital and marked as those which divided the two parties in 1904 or in 1900, to say nothing about the campaign of 1896 on the free silver issue.

Labor, the Law and the Courts

We have referred on various occasions to the influence of British court decisions on the political action of the English workmen and the growth of the independent and "semi-socialistic" Labor party. In this country the conditions are such, owing to the form of our government and the division of powers, that it is much more difficult to create a labor party or even to bring about concerted political action of workingmen in the interest of this or that legislation. Yet significant developments are observable in the world of organized labor. There is much outspoken dissatisfaction with Congress and the courts, and a vigorous demand has been made on the former for prompt attention to certain grievances of union labor. The failure to secure anti-injunction and additional eight-hour legislation is now a minor ground for this discontent, the major ground being found in the recent decisions of the Supreme Court, which have been heretofore discussed.

One of them annulled the employers' liability act, another annulled a section of the labor conciliation act which prohibited the railroads from discriminating against union workmen as such. A third declared that a combination to boycott an employer who sells his goods in more than

one state is an illegal "restraint of trade" and punishable under the national anti-trust law.

The labor leaders complain bitterly against these decisions. They call them "ironical" and unfair, and complain that the intent of Congress was disregarded by the court in holding the anti-trust act applicable to unions and the methods employed by officers and members of unions. They are demanding amendments of the law expressly exempting labor organizations and their policies from the operation of the trust act, even when boycotting is used in the enforcement of labor's claims. They are also demanding substantial anti-injunction legislation, a strong eight-hour law for the employes of government contractors, an employers' liability act, an act for trial by jury in cases of alleged contempt of court growing out of strikes and industrial disputes, and a law limiting the jurisdiction of the courts of equity by giving "property rights" and "contract rights" a stricter and narrower definition.

That the trust law needs revision and modernization is admitted by all. But to the legalization of boycotting there is strenuous objection, as there is to limitation of the power of the courts. It is agreed that labor unions and all other combinations that are not injurious or dangerous to the public ought to be exempt from the operation of the operation of the anti-trust law, but how is the injuriousness or harmlessness of a combination to be determined in advance? Who is to apply to combinations and agreements the tests of reasonableness and utility?

A bill that attempts to meet these difficulties and to legalize proper combinations and agreements under safeguards calculated to prevent abuse has been introduced in Congress with the approval of the President, leaders of opinion and party chiefs. It embodies the ideas that were developed and indorsed at the second trust conference held under the auspices of the national civic federation. It provides a system of registration for all unions and combinations that choose to take advantage of it; it provides for

the examination and approval by the government of all contracts and arrangements as to business dealings entered into by registered associations; it modifies the trust law in such a way that only unreasonable restraint of trade would be an offense under it in the event of its adoption.

The labor organizations do not think the bill goes far enough in protecting their rights and interests, although it expressly exempts them and recognizes the right to strike in concert and the right to collective bargaining with employers. The business interests favor the measure in spite of some unfamiliar features introduced by it into our scheme of administration and government—registration, publicity as to corporate affairs, etc. What Congress will do with the bill is decidedly uncertain. The President, however, indorses its substantial features and would welcome action by the national legislature along its lines, as he would other legislation designed to reassure and remedy grievances of legitimate corporations and trade unions.

Esperanto Congress at Chautauqua

Esperanto, the language evolved by Doctor L. Zamenhof of Warsaw, Russia, is not a theory but a fact. It exists. It is growing steadily, increasing its momentum as it proceeds. At the beginning of this year over one thousand books had already been published, ranging from a small sixteen-page pamphlet to a three-volume historical novel. Forty-five magazines are spreading the doctrine of Esperanto in every land, for every purpose. Tens of thousands of Esperantists are engaged in active propaganda work. One New York magazine having published articles about Esperanto is now selling an average of three hundred text books a day. Among the last two hundred successful candidates who obtained their Esperanto degrees from the British Association, fifty were Americans. Several of the States already possess an organization of their own and a young

apostle of Esperanto, Mr. Edmond Privat of Geneva, is now touring the country with great success, awakening enthusiasm and uniting the scattered forces which are laboring to spread Esperanto.

The foremost Esperanto book written by Doctor Zamenhof, "La Fundamenta Krestomatio," contains a long article about Chautauqua in which the wonderful advantages it would offer for the spread of Esperanto are set forth, and Chautauqua will have, next summer, the first national convention of Esperantists and conduct, throughout its session, courses of all grades as well as grant the official degrees of the International Esperanto Institute under the personal supervision of Mr. Edmond Privat, its founder, who was requested to remain in America for this purpose.

Chautauqua should be the place for the next International Congress to follow the Dresden Congress and the united Esperantists of America will strive to obtain this honor. The first international congress of Esperantists which was attended by 900 persons was the result of the unsupported efforts of a French lawyer, Mr. Michaux. The second congress, in 1906, gathered 1,200 Esperantists in Geneva, Switzerland, and was due to the initiative and efforts of Mr. Edmond Privat. The third congress, in Cambridge, England, was attended by 1,500 persons and was backed by several thousand dollars which had been subscribed by Indian Princes. The fourth congress in Dresden, Germany, is in charge of the German National Esperanto Association. It is in these congresses that the immediate application of Esperanto for personal benefit becomes chiefly apparent for, far more interesting than the great open meetings are the small congresses which hold meetings during the interval.

Esperanto, it is said, can be learned in one-tenth of the time required to learn another language and by people who would not be able to learn another tongue. At the present moment there are Esperanto courses in the public schools of 200 French cities—and there are over 950 Esperanto

M. Edmond Privat, young Esperanto Propagandist, now touring the United States.

Dr. L. Zamenhof, the Inventor of Esperanto.

American Esperanto Delegates to Cambridge Congress, 1907.

The Esperanto Congress at Cambridge University, England, Summer of 1907.
(Photograph taken in Trinity College Court.)

Associations in the world. Esperanto has now over 1,000,000 adepts and the fifth International Congress, which should be in America, will doubtless be highly influential.

Beginning with the September issue THE CHAUTAUQUAN will in its pages conduct a course in Esperanto for the benefit of those readers of the Modern European Year who may become interested in this new international language with its great possibilities as an aid to international peace.

The New Michigan Constitution

Oklahoma's constitution is generally regarded as the most radical in the United States. It includes many of the latest ideas in political science and in the art of government. It is democratic and replete with checks on the legislators and courts. After its adoption and ratification many predicted that it would serve as a model for other states—and not only new ones, but of old states that find it necessary to overhaul their constitutions.

Michigan has just revised her fifty-seven-year old constitution. A referendum had resulted in a vote of the people favoring revision, and a convention had accordingly been called to undertake the task. The convention was representative of all classes, and while agents and representatives of corporations were prominent in it, it is agreed that its deliberations and debates were worthy of the state. A few weeks ago it completed its work, at the last moment making certain concessions to progressive and democratic sentiment. The people are yet to pass upon it, and there is apparently no certainty of its ratification. But it is interesting to compare this new constitution with that of Oklahoma.

To begin with, Michigan has adhered to the plan of limiting the organic charter to general principles and broad provisions, as against this "new" idea of forestalling the legislature in many directions and accomplishing by constitutional

provision what is usually left to the ordinary lawmakers. The tendency is toward more elaborate and ample constitutions, but Michigan has resisted it.

With regard to the courts, the executive, and the legislature there are no great innovations in the Michigan charter. A concession has been made, however, to the equal suffragists. Women are enabled to vote in local elections on propositions involving bond issues and like matters of finance and taxation. The referendum and initiative movement has received very moderate recognition. Local questions shall be submitted to the people of the communities affected if a certain number of voters petition therefor, and general statutes may be submitted to the people at the discretion of the legislature. Even constitutional amendments may be initiated by the people by petition. But all these provisions are hedged about by restrictions that are supposed to preclude hasty and emotional referendum legislation or a too frequent use of that device. Not only Oklahoma but Oregon has far broader referendum provisions.

Even the tendency to municipal ownership of public utilities was not wholly ignored by the Michigan convention, but here too it showed its conservatism. It was proposed to permit none but taxpayers to vote on proposals involving the purchase or ownership of utilities, but this was denounced as reactionary, and might have caused the rejection of the constitution. Fear of such result led to the adoption of a provision to the effect that no utility shall be municipalized without a referendum and the consent of three-fifths of the voters. Elsewhere a mere majority suffices in such cases.

On the whole, the new constitution reflects considerably "the spirit of the age," though its industries, population, and traditions tend to make Michigan one of the conservative states. Whether the majority of the people are in advance of the convention, their votes will tell.

State Rights and Federal Power

It will be remembered that all through last fall and winter controversies raged in southern and western states over the right of inferior federal courts to suspend state laws reducing railroad rates and even to enjoin state officers from attempting to enforce such laws by criminal and civil actions in state courts. The situation at the time was very chaotic. Some federal judges freely issued injunctions of the most sweeping character against officials and shippers to suspend the enforcement of the two-cent fare acts and similar statutes, while others ordered temporary tests of such rate-reduction acts and refused to assume without positive proof that the acts were unfair and confiscatory.

Many appeals to the Supreme Court were taken at that time, both on essential and incidental or preliminary issues, and the decisions of that tribunal have been awaited with the deepest concern.

In two of the cases, one from Minnesota and the other from North Carolina, the court rendered important decisions late in March. The cases involved several issues of moment—the right of states to discourage resistance to their laws by severe and excessive penalties; the right of complainants to appeal to federal courts, where they believe their rights under the federal constitution to be menaced, without first taking their cases to state courts; and the power of federal judges, where jurisdiction has been assumed, to issue injunctions restraining sheriffs, attorneys general, and other state officers from seeking to compel obedience to state law.

The decisions are said by many to be revolutionary and destructive of state rights, though the court stood 8 to 1 in both cases and the only dissenter was a Republican judge, Mr. Justice Harlan. The opinion was written by a Democrat, Justice Peckham, and none of the other Democrats on the bench took exception to its reasoning.

In substance, the decisions are as follows:

That where a state act is believed to be invalid and subversive of constitutional rights the aggrieved need not go to the state courts, but may at once appeal to the federal court of the district.

That the federal court may assume jurisdiction and issue an injunction to suspend the law under attack, so as to prevent injury and injustice pending the litigation. That even attorneys-general and other state officers may be thus enjoined from enforcing a violation of the constitution, because a suit against them for such a purpose is not a suit against the state itself, but against individuals acting in its name.

That any act that imposes enormous fines and other excessive penalties in order to discourage litigation and appeals to the courts is invalid on its face, since it tends to deprive citizens of their right to a hearing in court, to the equal protection of the laws.

The court denies that any of these propositions are startlingly novel or epoch-making, but Justice Harlan, though a Republican, agrees with the critics who hold that the decisions introduce a change into the relations between the states and the federal government. There is a demand for an act depriving inferior federal courts of the power to suspend laws and enjoin state officers from enforcing them. Congress can pass such an act, it is believed, without our first amending the constitution. The agitation in the name of state rights will thus continue as to questions of policy and expediency whatever the law may be today.

Prohibition and Interstate Commerce

In view of the remarkable growth of the prohibition sentiment in the United States, especially in the South, where the low saloon patronized by illiterate blacks has been a menace to order and security, the congressional treatment of the question of prohibition has assumed great im-

portance. There are many anti-liquor bills pending. Some would establish prohibition in the Territories and in the District of Columbia, both for the sake of the welfare of the localities and as example to the states, counties and cities. Others deal with the very difficult legal question of interstate commerce in liquor.

The question is difficult because the Supreme Court in a series of decisions has extended what is known as the "original package" doctrine in such a way that the constitutionality of much of what is proposed is admittedly in doubt.

The problem is this: The states may, of course, regulate and even prohibit the manufacture, sale and distribution of liquor within their own boundaries. They may adopt local option laws and enable cities, counties and even wards and precincts to vote for or against the liquor traffic for themselves. But states cannot obstruct or hamper interstate commerce, and liquor is as legitimate a commodity under national law as any other. If, then, liquor is shipped from a license state into prohibition territory, the latter may not confiscate it or injure it in any way, nor may it punish those who receive and distribute it. What can it do? It must wait until the liquor reaches the consignee. The consignee may not sell the liquor or give it away contrary to state law. He may consume it, and serve it to friends at family or social functions, but that is all. This is the present law, as defined by the Supreme Court. The dissatisfaction with it arises from the fact that liquor is shipped C. O. D. into prohibition states, that express companies carry and distribute the packages, and that many of the consignees never order the liquor, but are simply notified that it has been sent in their names to claim it at their discretion and pay for it. This has converted some express company offices into saloons and violates the spirit of the state prohibition laws or policies.

What the bills referred to seek to do is to render liquor thus shipped liable to seizure the moment it enters the

prohibition state or district, before it reaches the individual consignee, actual or imaginary. They limit the conception "interstate commerce" and give to the state some power that has been exercised by the federal government.

Are they constitutional? A Senate subcommittee has, 3 to 2, reported that they are not—that is, that the courts would not be likely to sustain them. But many good lawyers profess the contrary opinion, and the matter will not be dropped. However, it is clear that no matter what Congress might say or do, the question whether any given case of shipment to or of seizure of liquor by a state was an interference that was justified by the laws governing interstate commerce would ultimately have to be decided by the courts.

Woman's Labor and the State

Is a statute limiting the labor of women in factories and laundries constitutional in the United States? Is it a proper regulation, or an arbitrary infringement on the personal and property rights of those affected?

Some years ago the Illinois Supreme Court annulled a law limiting the hours of women's labor. It saw no difference between such legislation and an attempt to limit the hours of work of adult men. Last year the courts of New York annulled a statute prohibiting the employment of women in factories and like establishments at night, after six in the evening and before seven in the morning. They based this decision on the apparently sweeping principle that woman is a full-fledged citizen, enjoying equal civil rights with man, and not in any sense "a ward of the state" to be protected and watched over specially. A closer study of the judicial opinions, however, disclosed many "obiter dicta" therein, and justified the inference that the law would have been upheld if its relation to the health, morals, and welfare of the community had been made more clear. The courts said that there was nothing before them to show that

it was injurious to woman to work in a factory at night, for much depended on the hours, conditions, etc. Would an hour's work at night be bad for the health of any woman under any circumstances? What of the work of women in the homes; what of social entertainments and late hours at opera, balls, etc.? It appears that the statute was considered too loose and too general to be sustained as a health regulation. The decision, however, created much anxiety among humanitarians and social reformers and organized women workers.

Recently the federal Supreme Court passed on the constitutionality of the Oregon law limiting woman's labor to ten hours. The case had attracted national attention and aroused much concern, for in many of our states laws limiting the labor of women have long been in force, unchallenged, and an adverse decision as to one would have invalidated all of them. Very full and elaborate briefs had been submitted to the court, that for the State of Oregon having been prepared by a progressive Boston lawyer after an exhaustive study of scientific, medical, and industrial reports and books bearing on the subject.

The decision was favorable to the law and unanimous. The opinion, by Justice Brewer, is acknowledged to be a masterly discussion of the issues. Its gist is contained in the following lengthy quotation, which we reproduce on account of its deep significance and probable effect on future American legislation:

> Differentiated by these matters from the other sex, she is probably placed in a class by herself, and legislation designed for her protection may be sustained, even when like legislation is not necessary for men, and could not be sustained. It is impossible to close one's eyes to the fact that she still looks to her brother and depends upon him. Even though all restrictions on political, personal, and contractual rights were taken away, and she stood, so far as statutes are concerned, upon an absolutely equal plane with him, it would still be true that she is so constituted that she will rest upon and look to him for protection; that her physical structure and a proper discharge of her maternal functions—having in view not merely her own health but the well-being of the race—justify legislation to protect her from the greed as well as the passion of man. The limitations which this statute places upon

her contractual powers, upon her right to agree with her employer as to the time she shall labor, are not imposed solely for her benefit, but also largely for the benefit of all. Many words cannot make this plainer. The two sexes differ in structure of body, in the functions to be performed by each, in the amount of physical strength, in the capacity for long-continued labor, particularly when done standing, the influence of vigorous health upon the future well-being of the race, the self-reliance which enables one to assert full rights, and in the capacity to maintain the struggle for subsistence. This difference justifies a difference in legislation and upholds that which is designed to compensate for some of the burdens which rest upon her.

This decision makes all existing state laws limiting the labor of women safe. It also insures vigorous efforts in Illinois, New York, and elsewhere to re-enact, with needful modifications, the statutes relating to such labor that were declared null and void by the state courts under erroneous theories as to freedom of contract, woman's alleged equality and limitations of the police power of states.

It is now established law in the United States that the labor of women and children may be regulated and limited, not arbitrarily, but to whatever extent the health and welfare of the society and the race may render necessary and proper. The labor of adult men, apparently, is not subject to such regulation, except, perhaps, in extreme cases. Adult men are supposed to be able to take due care of their interests and needs.

NOTE AND COMMENT.

In *Putnam's and The Reader* for March, Mr. Henry Holt begins a series of articles entitled "A Foreign Tour at Home." The first paper narrates the impressions received in Kansas City, Denver, and Colorado Springs. Some excellent illustrations add much to the interest of the account.

Charities and The Commons in its issue of March 7 makes announcement of a series of special numbers to appear next autumn embodying the results of an exhaustive survey of the "living and social conditions" of Pittsburgh, a typical industrial center. The reports promise to be not only a scientific collection of facts but the live story of the conditions under which a large percentage of our countrymen spend their days. A foretaste of the series is to be found in a readable article entitled "What Bad Housing Means to Pittsburgh," well illustrated with photographs of existing conditions.

An article in a recent number of the *Illustrated London News* tells of an expedition organized by Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn to investigate fossil remains in Egypt. The expedition was highly successful and brought to light evidence supporting Professor Osborn's theory that the remote ancestor of the elephant originated in Africa, whence his descendants spread to the other continents. Extraordinary as it may seem the most remote ancestor of the elephant was found to be closely related to the ancestor of the sea-cow.

The National Society of the Fine Arts of Washington has recently appointed a committee to prepare a plan and issue a call for a convention to organize a federation, the object of which is, generally speaking, to improve art conditions in this country. Thirteen specific purposes are enumerated:

1. The organization of art clubs and societies.
2. The establishment of art schools and local art galleries.
3. To encourage American artists; to secure their recognition, and to increase their compensation.
4. To secure the removal of the duty on works of art and books and other publications devoted to the fine arts.
5. To improve national, state, municipal and private architecture.
6. To extend public parks and playgrounds and to encourage individuals to beautify their own property.
7. To promote all movements for village improvements and plans for beautifying cities.
8. To assist in preserving natural scenery from destruction and desecration, and to extend the national park system.
9. To assist in the protection of the forests and streams; to encourage the planting of trees, the planting of flower gardens and decoration of door yards, and everything that will embellish the public streets of our cities, towns and villages.
10. To assist in the publication of a magazine devoted to news concerning art and kindred topics. The proposed magazine is to be the organ and exponent of the federation as "Science" is the organ of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the Geographical Magazine is the organ of the National Geographical Society.
11. To support and advance the National Gallery of Art, which has already been established under the Smithsonian Institution by bequests of important collections from the late Harriet Lane Johnston of Washington, Mr. Evans of New York and Mr. Freer of Detroit.
12. To assist in securing the erection of an appropriate building for the National Gallery corresponding at Washington to the Congressional Library and the new National Museum.
13. Finally, to make Washington the art center of the United States, as it is already the political center and is rapidly becoming the scientific and educational center of the country.

A Century of Foreign Criticism On The United States---A Study of Progress.*

XVI. Signs of Progress

(CONCLUDED).

By John Graham Brooks

IN a lecture on this coy subject of Progress, I sat beside an expectant stranger who listened with lessening attention for about twenty minutes. Then, with visible irritation, he reached for his hat, saying, "I'm too busy to listen any longer to this infernal pig-iron theory of progress."

It was a true description of the discourse. It was progress in terms of pig-iron and kindred material products, and yet this waspish auditor was not altogether fair to the lecturer. His figures had a kind of poetry of their own, as one watched the graphic tables through which the story was told. It yet seemed to me to stand for progress, that

*This is the concluding article of Mr. Brooks' series. The articles by months were: September: I. "The Problem Opened;" II. "Concerning Our Critics." October: III. "Who is the American?" IV. "Our Talent for Bragging." November: V. "Some Other Peculiarities;" VI. "American Sensitiveness." December: VII. "The Mother Country as a Critic;" VIII. "Change in the Tone of Foreign Criticism." January: IX. "Higher Criticism;" X. "Other French Visitors;" XI. "Democracy and Manners." February: XII. "Our Monopoly of Wit;" XIII. "Our Greatest Critic." March: XIV. "A Philosopher as Mediator;" XV. "A Socialist Critic." April: "Progress."

this impatient hearer was unfed by all the dazzling accumulations. He had heard the tale of our material greatness so often, that he wanted other proofs. Is the time never to come, he seemed to ask, when we can safely take the pig-iron side of our civilization for granted? We have heard the critics find a deal of fault with our harping on all manner of bignesses and rapidities. If social movement has a right direction in America; if there is the movement of growth and improvement, appeal has to be made to something besides bigness or swiftness. Questions mainly about the quality of things have to be asked, and not alone about the quality of *things*, but about the quality of whatever constitutes the moral and intellectual temper of our people and institutions. For example, is there among our citizens increase of public spirit as against sectional narrowness? Is there improvement in the public taste and manners? Is educational opportunity broadening, and the standard of education rising? Are we more ashamed of bluster and pretence? Is the public quicker to condemn the turpitude in business and public office? Is there a growing decency in our politics? Is the Press—"that test of democracy"—better or worse?

These are some of the hard questions that must be raised and in some way answered before the case for progress can be made out.

Several of these questions have already been hopefully answered by our critics. For more than half of the nineteenth century, the best of them are full of doubts about our future, so far as all ideals of mind and heart are concerned. Decade by decade the tone has changed until toward the close of the century, we have from them ungrudging admission that the institutions and the people of the United States have far outstripped expectations, so far as education, science, and many of the arts are concerned. The last quarter of a century has revealed other hungers and

other capacities that are classed in every country among the things of the spirit. In successive chapters, we have seen how ungrudgingly these higher attainments have been recognized by the ablest men and women who have told their story in all sorts of "Impressions of America." About two things they hesitate,—our politics and our press.

Let us look first at the press. It would have disheartening significance if this were failing us; if it were, as one often hears, becoming a meaner rather than a nobler influence; if taken as a whole, it were on the devil's side. For a hundred years it has been singled out as an object of vituperation. It was "The Daily Bulletin from the sick bed of civilization." It has, says another, turned us into the "Gehenna of the United States." In 1898 a foreign scholar wrote, "I ask but one proof that civilization in the United States is a failure. Her press alone gives you more proof than you require." Let us accept the test, and allow the critics, with a little nudging, to answer the question.

The above tone against the press continues until a few exceptions begin to be noted near the middle of the century. But the press in general gets little quarter until very recent times. Even now, nothing except our politics excites more critical condemnation. The average visitor buys a batch of the more notorious journals. On the headlines and brawling sensational features he makes up his little budget of comments. One of them writes, "If I wished to convince any rational being that the ruin of democracy is certain, I should see that he spent a few evenings reading these sheets." This is as if one were to test the excellence of the Dresden Gallery by the dozen worst canvasses on its walls, or a people's health by visiting the hospitals. Just above this type of observer is one who discriminates so far as to select in the East and West a group of papers that are admitted to be admirable and, to this extent the judgment is qualified. Matthew

Arnold and Professor von Holst found certain journals in the United States as able as any printed in Europe, but scarcely before the twentieth century has anyone attempted to study our Press *as a whole*. A simple incident shows what this more careful and discriminating study produces in way of criticism.

Two years ago an author and editorial writer on one of the London papers came to investigate this subject. I begged him to include in his examination not alone the dailies, but the weekly, the fortnightly and the monthly products, *The World's Work, McClure's, Review of Reviews, The Outlook, Collier's, The Ladies Home Journal, The World Today, The Youth's Companion, The Independent,* and a dozen others. Many of these summarize news and cope with every besetting problem as the older magazines that do us so much honor could not attempt. They are as integrally a part of our Press as a sheet with five daily editions. Some of these magazines are said to be given to muck-raking and to sensations. If the charge is true, it is a use of the rake that we need as sorely as the crippled or the sick need surgeons and doctors. The *few* have always known the existence and the nature of our real social perils, but methods of secrecy, created by the winners in our competitive system, have prevented the people as a whole from having the least intellectual grasp of ills from which they most suffer. One by one these eating sores, with the secrecy which sheltered them, are being laid bare to us all.

In this initial work of regeneration, the best of our dailies have had their influence immeasurably increased by periodicals of the type partially named. The cheap magazine is unhampered by local influence. It speaks to the nation. No one pretends that the magazines named are on sale to any capitalistic influence. If one were "bought," young fellows with ideals still burning in them would put another in its place. So incalculable has been their service

Backwoodsmen and a Steamboat Pilot of Frontier Days.

in making the millions see the danger-spots in the Republic; seeing them so clearly as to bring the question of remedies within the region of practical politics that they are already lively competitors in point of moral influence with the college and the church. Half playfully William James wonders if the future historian will not find young men turning from the university to the cheap magazine for help. This is already true. In every state and city where the fight for clean citizenship is really on, the achieving men get instruction and inspiration from these same sources, just as many an academic teacher goes to these same magazines to be trained for his own proper work.

When the English author above mentioned had done his work upon this inclusive journalism, he told me, "No nation has a press that should excite more pride* and en-

*Another English editor, Mr. Stead, writes, "*The Century, Scribner's* and *Harper's* are three periodicals the like of which we may search in vain through the periodical literature of the world. The American *Review of Reviews* is much superior in price and general get-up and advertisements to the English *Review of Reviews* from which it sprang. We have no magazine comparable to the *World's Work.* Neither have we anything comparable to the *Youth's Companion, The Ladies' Home Journal,* or *Success.*"

couragement than yours. Nowhere is a part of it worse; nowhere is the other part so good. No other people *dare* to take the lid off as you do, and that is your safety."

Like every other issue with which we have dealt, the question of press influence is one of comparison and of tendency. Is the *collective* influence of the press greater for good in the twentieth century than it was in 1800 or in 1825? Anyone who cares to spend two days upon the dingy files of those older organs, will see that they resemble the worst or the weakest of our present-day press, but bear little resemblance to the best of our press today. The temper of the time may be shown in a single incident in 1812. It concerns the *Federal Republican,* published in Baltimore. For years it used against the Government and the democracy a personal bitterness so extreme that the building in which it was published was destroyed together with the type and presses. Against all warnings, a plucky attempt was made by Editor Hanson to continue the publication. The author of "Home, Sweet Home," gave what proved to be most costly advice. A score of brave men promised to defend the new building from which the paper was to reappear. It was attacked with such fury that the public authorities were helpless. They got the men into jail to protect them, but this was attacked. Half the prisoners escaped, but nine were clubbed to death, after which their bodies were treated with insane brutality which only Indians on the war path could have matched.

Our stomach is still strong for literary enormities in every variety, but the billingsgate and vituperation of a century ago, we should not tolerate. It is only the "submerged tenth" of our press that equals it. It was not alone the famous Editor Duane, of whom it was written:

> Law, order, talents, and civility,
> Before your worshipful mobility,
> Must bow, while you their thinking man,
> Lead by the nose your kindred clan.

Stage Coach Days.

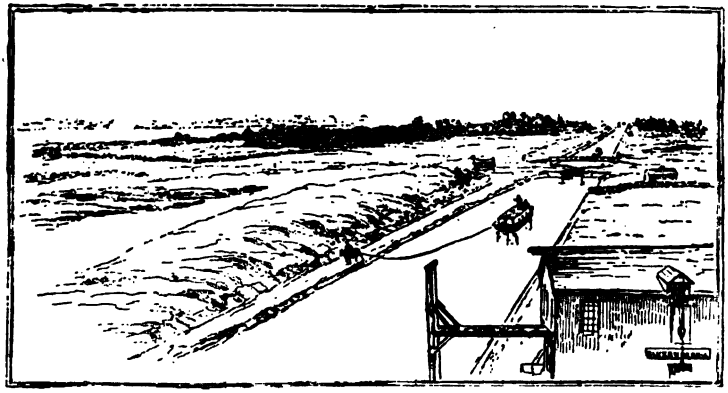
Thou art indeed a rogue as sly
As ever coined the ready lie
Amongst the Catilines of faction,
None calls more energies in action.
With impudence the most consummate,
You publish all that you can come at,
To make for discord's sake, a handle,
Of private anecdote, or scandal.

This editorial shyster is often singled out as an exception, but our ablest historian of that quarter of a century says he was but one among other "scurrilous libellers."

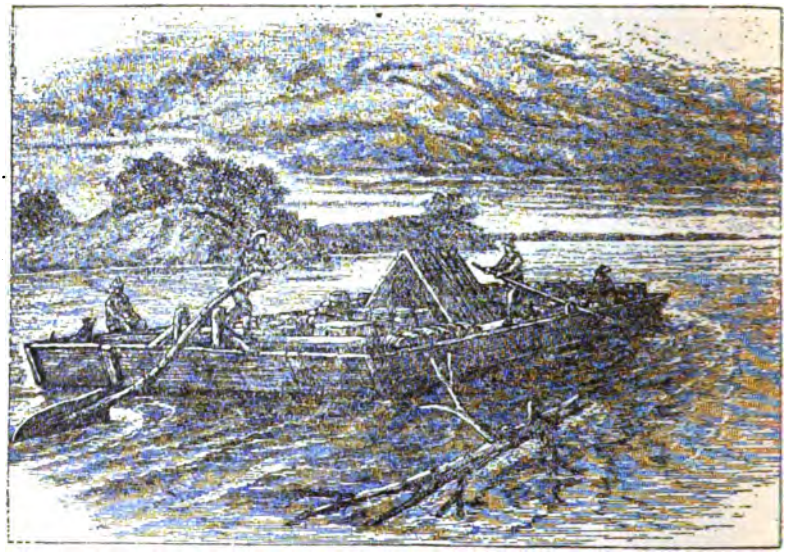
"William Coleman, who in 1801 became editor of the *New York Evening Post* under the eye of Alexander Hamilton; so was the refined Joseph Dennie, who in the same year established at Philadelphia the *Portfolio,* a weekly paper devoted to literature, in which for years to come he was to write literary essays, diversified by slander of Jefferson. Perhaps none of these habitual libellers deserved censure so much as Fisher Ames, the idol of respectability, who cheered on his party to vituperate his political opponents. He saw no harm in showing 'the knaves,' Jefferson and Gallatin, the cold-thinking villains who lead, 'whose black blood runs intemperately bad,' the motives of their own base hearts."*

*Adams, Vol. I, p. 119.

But if democracy's chief educator—the Press—has improved; if the *totality* of press influence is now more effective for good; if the best of it is arousing the people first to a consciousness, and then to a new sensitiveness and shame about out national vices, can any comparable word of hope be spoken about our *Politics?* Very tardily we have learned that no answer can be given to this inquiry about politics unless we include in the question the chief commercial activities; especially those that have a monopoly character. Our more powerful business interests give both shape and color to politics. Politics does not improve unless business methods also improve. Especially in a democracy, the morals of business and of politics will rise or fall together. If leading business enterprises are as lax and reckless as they were after our Civil War, nothing could prevent scandals as gross as those in Grant's administration. Aaron Burr's sinister political influence was neither greater nor less than the corrupt business support that was behind him. The politics of Pennsylvania and Rhode Island are today largely what the chief local business methods of monopoly character have made them. The task, then, is no less formidable than this: to show that



Western end of the Erie Canal. From an old drawing made by Captain Basil Hall.



Flat-boat on the Mississippi in the early days.

standards have risen alike in business methods and in political activity. The story of New York and Chicago street railways, the story of St. Louis, Philadelphia and San Francisco are fresh in our minds. What at any time could have been worse than these tabulated histories? The fleecing of the public in these and a score of other industries is on a scale so immense that the wiles of the older time seem in comparison like the naughtiness of children. Yet nothing stands out in our record with greater clearness than the rise of business and political standards, *if the temper of the community is taken as a whole.* The only sure test of a rising standard must be in the increased popular sensitiveness to social evils. If we are quicker to smart under them; if we are more ready and alert to oppose them, the spirit of improvement is astir among us. Whenever a community becomes conscious and sensitive about an evil, progress so far has begun. It may be cruelty to children

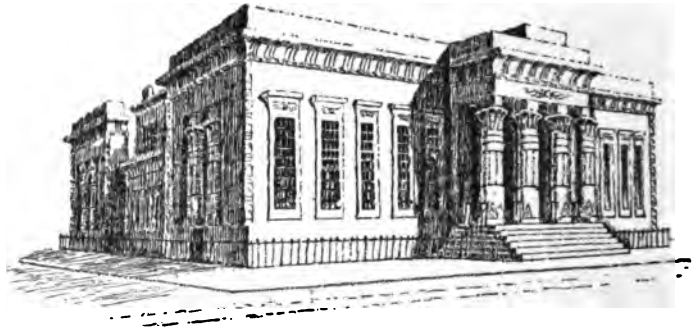
or to animals. To get a new social feeling as to what this cruelty means, then to organize the feeling into a recognized standard, so that it may be penalized and put under ban, *is* progress.

This forward social movement may be seen in almost every phase of life noted by our critics. It is hard now to picture a community in the nineteenth century which tolerated a set of toughs who let their nails grow long in order to gouge out other men's eyes and to maim each other in ways still more hideous. Yet this was an amusement which never failed of an audience. As indications of callous inhumanity, those brutalities are little if any worse than the miscellaneous savagery against those who fell into debt, often by mishaps that should have excited only pity, or than the prevailing treatment of the insane which few of us can now read without a physical shrinking. The prisons where these atrocities went on were openly accessible to public observation in the very pick of New England communities.

Here are examples vouched for by our historian McMasters:

"The face of the land was dotted with prisons where deeds of cruelty were done in comparison with which the foulest acts committed in the hulks sink to a contemptible insignificance. For more than fifty years after the peace, there was in Connecticut an underground prison which surpassed in horrors the Black Hole of Calcutta. This den, known as the Newgate Prison, was in an old worked-out copper mine in the hills near Granby. The only entrance to it was by means of a ladder down a shaft which led to the caverns underground. There, in little pens of wood, from thirty to one hundred culprits were immured, their feet made fast to iron bars, and their necks chained to beams in the roof. The darkness was intense; the caves reeked with filth; vermin abounded; water trickled from the roof and oozed from the sides of the caverns; huge masses of earth were perpetually falling off. In the dampness and the filth the clothing of the prisoners grew mouldy and rotted away, and their limbs became stiff with rheumatism."

"At Northampton the cells were scarce four feet high, and



The old New York Tombs, Modeled after the Egyptian Style of Architecture.

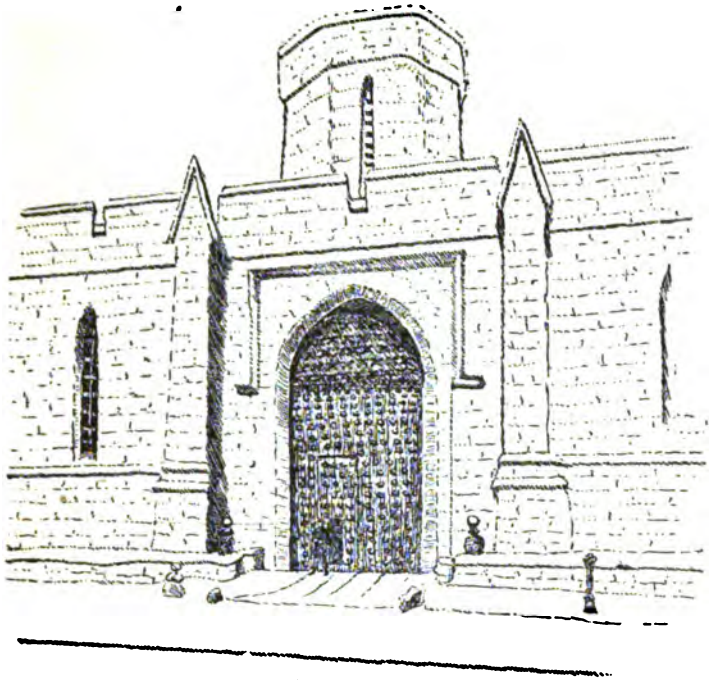
filled with noxious gases of the privy vaults through which they were supposed to be ventilated. At the Worcester prison were a number of like cells, four feet high by eleven long, without a window or a chimney, or even a hole in the wall. Not a ray of light ever penetrated them."

"Modes of punishment long since driven from prisons with execrations as worthy of an African kraal were looked upon by society with a profound indifference. The tread-mill was always going. The pillory and the stocks were never empty. The shears, the branding irons and the lash were never idle for a day."

From a report of the committee of the Humane Society (New York, 1809) we get a glimpse of prisons that were in still more ghastly condition. In one, it was the occupation of a burly negro to strip and flog the inmates. The committee found those in chains who had been in these foul quarters so long that no one connected with the prison could throw the least light on the cause of imprisonment. One of these victims was found to be both insane and blind. He was in such tatters that the visitors, who called special attention to him, are told that it does no good to give him clothes because *"the rats will eat them off him."*

That these abominations could exist; that they could be so widely known to the public, represents an indifference to suffering which we have put a good way behind us.

The atrocities committed against a large part of those



Entrance to the Philadelphia Bastile, one of the Prisons denounced by Dickens.

who could not pay their debts may be seen in the fact that the Embargo of 1808 caused a business depression so sharp that thousands of hard working and honest people could not meet their liabilities. They were not to blame for the panic, but in 1809 the prisons were choked with men and women who owed sums of less than ten dollars. For the very poorest of these there was in many instances actually no provision made by state or city even to feed them. There was no attempt made at ventilation, nor was there the slightest sanitary care. There seems never to have been room enough, so that damp cellars were usually crowded. Sickness and an appalling death rate were, of course inevitable.

In the United States of today those barbarities would excite a riot of moral revolt. We are still very dense in dealing with crime but our advance in humaneness and in solicitude for suffering is so great that we seem to be in another world. But it is very evident that this improved feeling about *one* form of evil cannot long be confined to that alone. It will slowly assert itself in revolt against other forms of evil as their social harmfulness becomes clear.

This is what has happened also in the business and political world. We have at last begun to be sensitive about innumerable transactions that were accepted by our ancestors as they tolerated the atrocities of the prisons. When Marryat* reports the saucy unconcern with which an official tells him openly that his salary is so much, and his "stealings" so much besides, it is not merely a facetious stroke, it represents a condition that we have outgrown to the extent that public opinion is now stung into criticism and into action.

The head of one of the best known commission houses in New York City has in his library documents which record accurately the methods of his branch of business for two generations. He tells me that no one familiar with business can study that record without seeing that the "market tone" has risen. It is not merely that a relatively larger and larger part of business is done on credit that *assumes* a prevailing trustworthiness in the trade, but he adds, "We are compelled today to be a great deal more solicitous about the entire moral side of our dealings."

As high a type of citizen and large business man as New England has produced in our time—the late John M. Forbes—said openly that in his earlier business career

*"I asked how much his office was worth, and his answer was six hundred dollars, besides *stealings*. This was, at all events, frank and honest; in England the word would have been softened down to perquisites. I afterwards found that it was a common expression in the States to say a place was worth so much besides *cheatage*." Marryat, (I), p. 194.

"things were done by trustees that the public would not for an instant stand today, and they were done *without a thought of their being wrong.*"* As one moves from city to city toward the West, the same reply is almost invariably given. For a good many years I have sought evidence on this point. As older inhabitants will illustrate by their personal observation, the solid improvement in drinking habits; in social refinements; in more varied and wholesome pleasures; in all that touches public and private health; they will also tell you that the political and business trickeries, common in the older time, would today excite more instant criticism.

The sickening details of business and political corruption that followed our Civil War led the late Senator Hoar to examine the old records of our "idolized days"—the days of Washington, Adams, and Jefferson. The honest Massachusetts senator had been made half ill by the magnitude of revealed corruption in General Grant's administration (chiefly the whiskey frauds and those under Secretary Belknap). It was from this low ebb that he made his comparison. His judgment is unequivocally this, that the politics of those admired days were not only more corrupt than today, but more corrupt as compared to the worst of Grant's regime.†

In the chapter on "Our Greatest Critic" it was asked if there were anywhere in the pages of Mr. Bryce actual *evidence* for his sustained and buoyant spirit of hopefulness about this country. We may believe as a matter of faith, never so stoutly, that all is to come right, but Mr. Bryce's volumes scarcely contain the reasons for his optimism,

*In speaking of the scandals after our Civil War, the historian Rhodes describes the popular feeling as severe against the bribe-taker but not against the bribe-giver. "In business ethics the man who took a bribe was dishonorable, the man who gave it was not." Vol. VII, p. 11.

†The reader who wishes to refresh his mind on the degree of corruption that came after our Civil War, may find it in the calm wise pages of Rhodes' History of the United States, 7th volume.

apart from his faith and good will. After he has disclosed some staggering political evil, we are often left speculating just why the flame of his good cheer loses neither light nor heat. It burns on undiminished and we too feel that he is right. We too cling to our faith that all will turn out well with us and our institutions; but are there *proofs* that our movement and direction are right?

In the open record covered by our list of critics, there are substance and material in abundance to answer the question. Bad as we now are and indefensible as our iniquities may be, our ancestors acted upon the whole with less political and business scruple than we now act. But a word of warning is necessary.

It would be most disreputable work to "show up" the infirmities of these ancestors, if it were to leave us with added self-complacency. Our sins are relatively and for our times as great as theirs, and we shall not wash them out except by suffering and by struggle. If this is our spirit, we do those ancestors no wrong in telling the truths of progress and of growth.

We have to go back hardly more than two generations before our first critic, to see many illustrious American families accepting undisturbed a goodly portion of their income from very murderous piracies on the high seas. They took the blood money without a shiver. It was the wont and usage of the time. There was no conviction of sin about partnership in such robberies. This degree of callousness is left behind as we approach the nineteenth century. But in the year 1800 and long after it, there were business and political practices widely current that excited far less shame and protest than those practices now excite. This new sensitiveness, coupled with immense organized energies to curb the evils, is itself a definition of Progress. But are we making headway?

Let us look at the one State where we can best see the interaction between politics and privileged business early

Emigrants of the early days attacked by Comanches.

A Prairie Fire.

in the last century, the State of New York. The work of transcribing events authentically from the journals of the Senate has been so far done, that we know accurately what happened. It was long thought that New York was the one unhappy exception. We now know that it stood fairly for methods that were very general throughout the country. In 1816 the aldermen were stealing the city land and by tricks inconceivable in that city to-day. The great number of state licensed lotteries were not alone a source of debauchery in themselves, they had a political use which was even worse. The history of favors secured by the Exchange Bank in 1818 was rank with venality. To buy legislative aid with Bank or Insurance Company stock was a system. The frauds of the insurance companies were far more openly gross than any we have known in our day. From 1805, the relation of chartered business to political scandals continued with regularity and notoriety. In 1812 the Assembly compelled its members to pledge themselves not to sell their votes, though this pledge was of short duration. The story of the Brooklyn Ferry Monopoly, of the Commercial Bank, of the Chemical Bank, of the capitalization of the State Bank, and of the Manhattan Bank which the politicians controlled, are one and all of the same character.*

*Let the reader turn to McMaster (vol VI., p. 405) and note what banking methods were in use twenty-five years later.

When the contest for full manhood suffrage came in 1820, the richer class was shocked because "corruption would come in *with the people.*" It is true the people were used to this end, but the essential evil in its worse form was all there and never more gluttonously used, than when the suffrage was confined to "the safe property interests," to the genteel and the well-nurtured. Why, then, should the blame have been heaped alone upon the poor political goat, as if he alone were the sinner? Why should the business partner get off so easily? Not until within ten years has this union between business and politics had a popular and convincing explanation. We see at last that if a great mining area like Montana develops a fierce competitive and gambling spirit, the state politics will merely reflect that spirit, and the richest man who wants it will buy his place in the Senate. If the chief industry is lumbering and the competitive passion connives at the organized robbery of public forests, the same type of man takes his seat in that body. The cry was always heard, "Politics must be reformed!" The cry should have been, "Those business methods which *create* politics must be reformed!" To have made this discovery; to see what it means with the railroads, forests, grazing lands, mines, and all forms of chartered privilege, is more important than any mechanical discovery of our age. To go straight on in the way we have at last set out, to bring this whole group of privileges under social control; to stop once for all private persons from using these immense values as mere dice in their game; to stop the interception of unearned wealth that has made our craziest inequalities, is the kind of progress that puts justice and fair dealing into our business and *therefore* into our politics.* The whole renaissance of ardor and interest in civic decency that is now alive in the nation;

*We shall sometime wake out of our drugged condition to see that the excesses of our tariff (as in Pennsylvania) have sunk the political tone and method to depths from which it will require the moral valor of a generation to lift and free us.

that pulses in the best of our press; that gives us a score of books each year and has created hundreds of active organizations in the country, is largely due to the new confidence that we see what the evil is and how to measure our strength against it.

Again and again, our best critics have noted a sinister "fatalism" in our attitude toward these evils. "You cannot get your American to kick unless he is threatened by some dramatic disaster," is said of us for a hundred years. The kicking has set in, and the altered experience through which the talent has developed is full of hope. Two generations ago Abdy was in despair about slavery because "the people I meet will not admit it to be evil." The second phase of this despair was that "even if it is an evil, nothing can be done about it." We have passed through both those phases as they concern a great many social perils.

In 1830 a writer records this about tuberculosis: "What they call 'consumption' kills the Americans as if they were perpetually in battle; but they speak of it as if it were in no way their concern, rather as if God sent it for some reason of His own." We are now assured that "simply to use the knowledge" at our disposal is to check tuberculosis as effectively as has been done in the case of small-pox.

But this new consciousness of power over evils that had been accepted as fatal, is no longer confined to diseases of the body. We are learning that political and industrial diseases are no more a necessity than yellow fever. A new shame has come to Americans throughout the land because they were so long and so cheaply fooled by common rogues in the shape of party bosses created and backed by privileged interests. East and West so many of these creatures have been put to rout and the tawdry tricks exposed, that the question rises why we were so long lulled into this fool's submission. It was largely because we did

not see straight. It was largely because the deeper causes of bad politics were hidden from us. To leave privileged monopoly in private hands with only a pretence of regulation, is an open and direct premium upon organized bribe giving and bribe taking. Every special vice was protected and encouraged by the methods of secrecy which these favored monopolies were permitted to use. The public gave outright every chartered condition on which monopoly rests. These indispensable grants gave rights to state and city which we clean forgot, until the abuses became so topping and outrageous that the close of the nineteenth century saw the beginning of a revolt which another generation will count quite as revolutionary as the uprising against slavery after 1830. If less desperate, the struggle before us will be as long as that against the other slavery. It will weigh men in the balance, even as it did then. It will call forth noble heroism and, alas! also the cringing cowardice which selfish idolatries always engender. None of us will escape the test. The Church, the College, the Press, will no more avoid it than the politician or the man in the street.

It is progress to be awakened to the facts. To have begun the struggle is further progress. The one hope of it all is to realize that the main work has yet to be done. It lies there before us solely as opportunity; opportunity for large and disinterested citizenship.

Not a tittle more democracy can be ours than that which is measured by our freedom from these pampered monopolies which we created by our common negligence and our common ignorance, and have so long permitted as to leave very few of us without consenting guilt. As the mass and extent of this lawlessness has been laid bare so that the people could see how deep and dangerous a pit we have been digging for popular government, the revolt has come. It has for the first time in our history shown vigor enough to frighten the lawbreakers. They are now

crying for relief. In the words of another classic law-breaker,

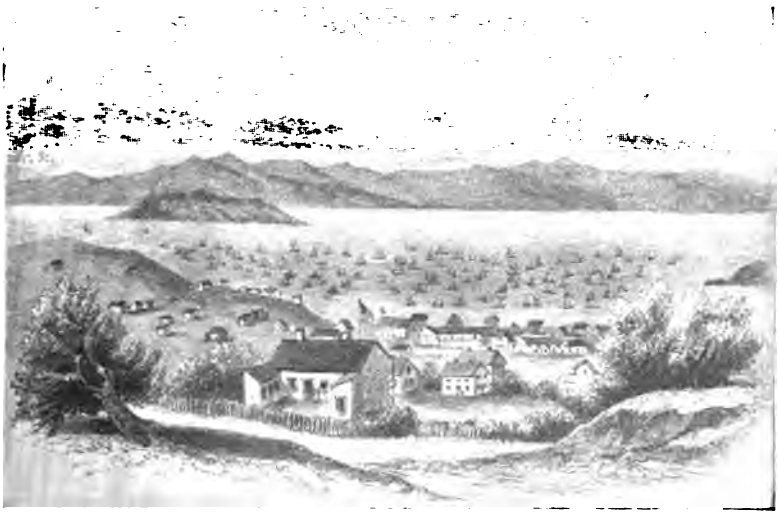
> "I'm a quiet Old Cove," says he with a groan:
> "All I axes is—Let me alone."

But why "let alone?" "Because," says the Cove, "money incomes will be endangered. We have been corrupting and breaking the laws of the people. That is true of us; but to make us obey those laws will injure business and it will, moreover, hurt a great many innocent people."

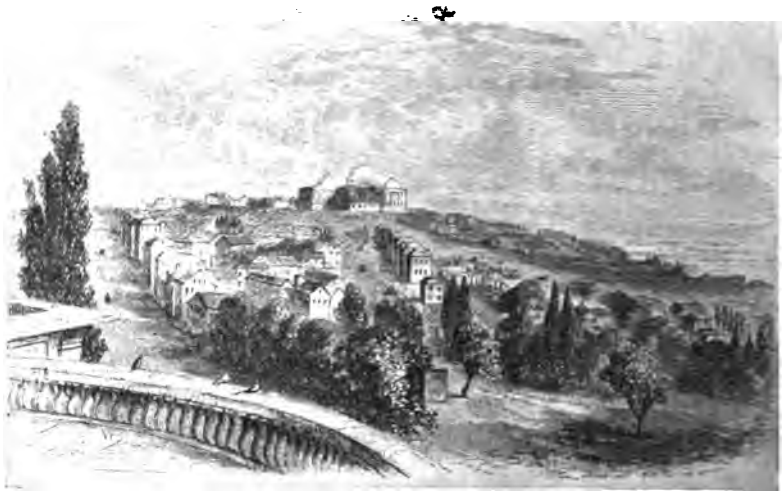
This in its nakedness is the answer. The shabby excuse appears unashamed in scores of our papers. Yet, there is nothing less than the Nation's honor and health at stake. Will the people continue to tolerate the corruption and the lawlessness for the sake of these stock-exchange estimates? For the entire people and for a larger future, this cash-box reckoning is false. It is true, if at all, only for the few and for the immediate present. Political and business honesty must surely be best in the long run for the great body of our people. We shall go on struggling and caring for the money income, but we must learn also to care greatly and with some passion for business straightness and political cleanness. This nobler solicitude will prove the one unavoidable test of our democracy. We have begun now to compel our money kings to play a fair game and obey the law. This is well and necessary, because they have so *conspicuously* disobeyed. They have caused more havoc than lesser folk. They have rifled the people's wealth. But most of them have also organized, built up, and immensely developed our national resources. This shall go down to their credit. There is no unpleasanter fact about "us common people" than the desire, old as it is new, to have a scapegoat upon which to pack our own sins. We are now forcing "the rich" into this service. They must be made to act legally; but so must all of us be made to act legally.

To get this sense of law-abidingness into our minds *as a people,* is the duty above all others now before us. To

Detroit in 1815.



Site of San Francisco in 1848.



Washington, from a sketch made about 1830.

look the dishonors straight in the face; to flay bribe-sanctioning at the top, as we flay bribe-taking at the bottom; to see that the corrupting of a legislature is a darker and a meaner sin than the slugging of a scab; to ask for "law and order" among the mighty as we ask it among the obscure; to set ourselves grimly and a little sadly—as if with a sense of common frailty—to the great task of national house cleaning, is the solemn beginning to which we are committed in these early days of the twentieth century.

It will not pass as a spasm of moral irritation because a deep and sustaining popular sentiment has at last been aroused and instructed. Men with stout hearts willing to fight on the outer lines may now count on this support. It is a sentiment that cannot lessen because the causes out of which it sprang are multiplying in the community. Where the people have suffered most, there the flame of the new feeling is at its height. From Oregon to Los Angeles the uprising is most clearly felt.

It was on that fateful Pacific coast that the people came first to see the whole lying farce of "representative government." Monopoly-made politics had there a stalking affrontery which was all the swifter to carry its convincing lessons to the people.

The ringing cry for direct primary, referendum, initiative, recall, and popular election of senators which fills that freer air is the challenge to monopoly privilege. It is the cry for that measure of economic and political equality which has long been our theory, but never our practise. It is the cry that democratic government shall now *begin* in the United States.

This hardier spirit is everywhere alive in the great West. It is alive in the East, but the sanctities of precedent and privilege lie heavier upon us. If any genius had a gift to compare deeply and truthfully Philadelphia with San Francisco, the story would enlighten us like a message from the gods. Yet the new moral reckoning is of no section; neither is it of any party, sect or nationality.

In the long list of the century's critics there is scarcely a volume which does not directly or indirectly, willingly or unwillingly, bear witness to this slow rise in social sensitiveness, and in social purpose to free ourselves from industrial and political tyrannies. Twenty years ago, one of these censors used words with which I gladly close this study. Though they apply to other nations, we can well afford to take the hint they offer.

"If the American should once become possessed of a little genuine humility, a humility without loss of courage or self-respect; if he lost a little hardness in his self-confidence and became more teachable, his mastery in the art of self-government would easily lead the world."

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The Story of American Painting*
IX. Contemporary Landscape Painting

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IN other chapters of this series accounts have been given of our first group of landscape painters in whom certain technical and intellectual traits were found to be common and who were accordingly considered as constituting a "school." The members of the Hudson River School were serious artists with high ideals and praiseworthy patriotic sentiments, but, however worthy they were as men, and however noble their art in purpose, they worked on what now seem to have been false principles in that one of their great objects was not so much good painting as the slavish imitation of nature and the inspiring of supposedly elevated thoughts by the representation of supposedly noble themes. Many of these painters had been engravers and their faults result partly from the detailed manner of work in engraving, but still more from their primitive conception of nature and of art;

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*This is the last article in the series recounting the history of American Painting. The articles heretofore printed were: "Foreword" and "Painting in Colonies" (September); "The Period of the Revolution" (October); "The Years of Preliminary Growth" (November); "Formative Influences" (December); "The Development of Landscape and Marine Painting" (February); "Modern Portrait Painting" (March); "Contemporary Figure Painting," and "Contemporary Mural Painting" (April).

and Daubigny. In no sense their imitator he was unquestionably of their spiritual kin. For he has their sensitiveness to the moods of nature and something of their gift of poetic interpretation.

Inness loved and painted the "civilized landscape" and in this his chosen field he was most various. He painted nature in all weathers and seasons, yet he seemed to prefer stormy skies, evenings, and early mornings. He loved the richness of the midsummer and the autumn coloring and especially those times when the sun diffuses a golden glow over all. He has not been so generally appreciated by his countrymen as he deserves, but by connoisseurs and critics he has long been considered the father of the naturalistic movement in landscape in America. He had, to be sure, decided limitations. He is an uneven painter, sometimes spotty, and often does not render the texture of the clouds, rocks, or earth so well as Wyant, and not nearly so well as some of the Barbizon painters. In his late period especially he is frequently vague and lacking in definiteness in the rendering of form. But frequently he is entirely successful, and perfectly adapts his means to his end. He is greatest, perhaps, in his color, his composition, and in his imagination. He is our great, perhaps our greatest, poet of landscape. Like the true artist he was, he was never content with his accomplishment, but was altering and amending up to the time of his death in Scotland in 1894. Many years before this he had adopted the Swedenborgian faith and this faith ennobled his art. It is recorded that he said, "The true use of art is, first, to cultivate the artist's own spiritual nature, and, second, to enter as a factor in general civilization. The true artistic impulse is divine."

Alexander H. Wyant (1836-1892), the "Poet of the Adirondacks," lacked Inness's imagination and his wide range. He devoted his art chiefly to the interpretation of restricted portions of the Adirondack and the Catskills regions. Different as he was both as a painter and a man from his friend Inness, he resembles him in the earnestness

of his endeavor and in the steady progress of his art. That he was a great painter with a fine feeling for the forms of nature and for the poetry of atmosphere may be seen from scores of his tender yet virile interpretations of woodland scenes, such as his "Broad Silent Valley" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Feb., 1908, p. 369), or his "Glimpse of the Sea," which we reproduce.

Homer D. Martin (1836-1897) was an equally important, though a very different kind of a painter, and resembled his two great contemporaries in the gradual development of his artistic gift. His changes of style are greater than Wyant's and almost as various as Inness's. He started with a manner very similar to that of the best Hudson River men, though more tender and sympathetic. Afterwards, during what may be called his second period when he visited Europe repeatedly, he was strongly affected by the contemporary movement in France. His beautiful "View of the Seine" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Feb., 1908, p. 376) while strikingly reminiscent of Daubigny is representative of but one of many phases of his art. In his latest period he was again in America painting much the same subjects as in his early career,—mountains, forests, and rivers, but with increased freedom and mastery of the brush, and usually with something of the tender melancholy which nearly always characterizes his art.*

That the modern movement in landscape in America is still young is proved by the fact that these its pioneers passed away but yesterday. In another chapter of this series (see THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Feb., 1908, p. 379,) the names of a number of contemporaries of Inness, Martin, and Wyant were mentioned. It will, therefore, not be necessary to

*A sympathetic biography written by his wife is mentioned in our bibliography. It will be found especially useful for the account of his very interesting personality, and for its many illustrations which show his development.

A number of important works by American artists, among them Martin, Wyant, and Inness have recently been presented to the National Museum at Washington, D. C., and are on view in the Corcoran Gallery in that city.

dwell upon the other elder painters,—the Hart brothers, the two Giffords and others,—who carry the story of American landscape down to our own time. Just as the great trio were taken as standing not only for a generation of artists, but also for a whole tendency towards greater breadth, deeper truth, and more poetry in painting, so in the same way, since it is impossible here to study the scores of recent landscapists of distinction, the few painters of our own day who are chosen for comment must be taken as typical of various phases of the later modern movement.

The modern movement of the last fifty years has been one of realism. Now realism is a relative term, for what seems realistic to one age or one person has not that character to another age or another person. Moreover, there are in painting several kinds of realism,—realism of form, of local color (that is of tints and textures of earth, sky, and foliage), and of light and atmosphere. In order better to understand some tendencies in modern art the layman may well observe certain things in natural landscapes and compare them with painted landscapes. Let him observe in the real world the shape of clouds, earth, and rocks, the forms and appearance of trees, their branches, twigs, and leaves. When he observes a tree from a short distance he knows that the details are there, but what he actually sees is a mass of various greens shot through with light and shade. The older masters painted what they knew made up a tree. The modern painters strive to render appearances. Of this we have an excellent example in Inness's "Autumn Oaks" with its broad masses of foliage which well indicate the largeness and the vigor of the oak.

In nature as in art we find "modeling," as well as texture in foliage, sky, and earth. In nature the earth looks solid, water appears liquid, and clouds seem as light as air. One of the painter's tasks is to paint so as to suggest the evanescence of the cloud, the liquidity of the water, the solidity of the earth, and the luminosity of the sky. Besides this he must try to render the brightness and trans-

parency of shadows, and the amount of light or dark in the sky as related to the amount of light or dark of the earth. His task is the more difficult because nature is never at rest. Lights, shadows, and hues change constantly. This last too he must somehow subtly suggest in his picture. But of course the artist does not attempt to reproduce all he sees. Instead, he must eliminate, combine, synthesise, in a word, he must compose.* He is to produce unity, harmony and beauty. The moderns have simplified in composition as they have in light and shade. That a painter may modify a shadow to heighten an artistic effect is admissible. In Inness's "Glimpse of the Sea" the darks of the foliage and of the foreground emphasize the brightness of the distant sky and its reflection in the water. This relation of lights and darks, of "values," has become a special study of the moderns. Note, for instance, how beautifully C. H. Davis in his "Twilight" succeeds in making the ground stretch away from the spectator, and the glowing sky bend to the horizon. This he accomplishes by his delicate use of values. Just so does Ranger in his "Docks of Noank" make the sea spread away to the horizon and Redfield in his "Fallen Tree" persuade us that the river lies below and that the hill is in the distance. There is the same subtle usage in Tryon's "New England Farm" and in the works of Schofield and Metcalf which are here reproduced.

Color is another element in nature that cannot usually be the same in painting. Here too the artist has to select and arrange. Beauty is the end to be gained, therefore the colors must not only be beautiful, but they must also be harmonious and properly related to one another. Finally, many modern artists are interested not only in rendering the forms of nature, its values, its atmosphere, its local colors, and its passing moods, but also in the harmonious result of all these, in what is called "tone." The difference between a painting without tone and one with tone is

*See H. R. Poore's "Pictoral Composition and the Critical Judgment of Pictures" (The Baker & Taylor Co., N. Y., 1903).

like that between a piece of gaudy calico and a Persian rug.*

Many American artists have interested themselves in the handling of paint, in its quality, its color and its beauty of surface without regard to what it represents. These men form a group known as "Tonalists." This title does not stand for an organization or a concerted movement, but, rather, for individuals who have been led by temperament and surroundings to employ somewhat similar artistic methods. One of the greatest of this group is Henry W. Ranger. Born about fifty years ago he received but little direct training. He first used water colors, but no sooner had he mastered this medium than he took up oils. Though he has studied the methods of one painter after another, he is of too vigorous a nature to be a mere borrower, and, as his development has been slow, he has now the more surely come into a period of great fruition. In such a painting as his "Spring Woods" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Feb., 1908, p. 370,) the reader must imagine in place of the blacks and whites of the half tone a miraculous sparkle of the sun on tremulous twigs and leaves and grass,—a quiet corner of nature alive with glowing light and air. Here, as in his "Wood Interior" and the "Docks of Noank," there is evidence of his love of repeated horizontals and verticals in his composition. Yet his arrangements never become monotonous. They are as various as his subjects, and their range and variety are amazing. Surely if versatility and subtlety are characteristics of modern painting, Ranger is modern. And all his multitudinous variety is made one by his color harmonies, his glowing tone, and his dominant personality.

A name no less important than Ranger's among recent American landscape painters is that of Dwight W. Tryon. The two men have very few points in common except that they are both emotional interpreters of nature's moods by

*See "Brush and Pencil," vol. XVI, No. 2, August, 1905, p. 42, in an article on Henry W. Ranger by Paul Dougherty. For three meanings of the word see VanDyke's "Art for Art's Sake," Lecture III.

"Autumn Oaks," by George Inness. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

"Twilight," by C. H. Davis. In the Art Institute, Chicago.

"A Glimpse of the Sea," by A. H. Wyant. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

"Wood Interior," by Henry W. Ranger.
(Courtesy of Young's Art Galleries, Chicago.)

"Docks at Noank," by Henry W. Ranger.
(Courtesy of Young's Art Galleries, Chicago.)

"New England Farm in Winter," by D. W. Tryon.

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"Moonlight on the Lagoons," by Alexis Fourner.

"Church Nocturne—Old Lyme," by Childe Hassam.
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"Lorelei," by Childe Hassam.
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"Midwinter Thaw," by W. E. Schofield.

"Winter in Picardy," by W. E. Schofield.

"Center Bridge," by E. W. Redfield. In the Art Institute, Chicago.

"The Fallen Tree," by E. W. Redfield.

"The Blue Gale," by Paul Dougherty.

"The Cleft," by Paul Dougherty.
(Courtesy of Young's Art Galleries, Chicago.)

"Mid-Winter," by W. L. Metcalf.
(By permission of N. E. Montross.)

means of color and tone, that they both wield a very versatile brush, and that Tryon also was slow in reaching his maturity. Born in Hartford, Connecticut, a few years earlier than Ranger, Tryon began life as a stationer's assistant, and only by dint of careful saving and management was he able to carry out his desire to go to Paris. Having settled there with his wife he was fortunate in his masters, for he studied under Daubigny and Harpignies, two of the greatest French landscape painters. The simple love of rural nature of Daubigny and the sound and methodical teaching of Harpignies must have been both an inspiration and a help to the young artist. As early as 1881 Tryon opened a studio in New York and he has ever since been adding to the world's store of poetic interpretations of nature. One is accustomed to identify with his art such a scene and such treatment as "An Evening in May" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March, 1908, p. 62,) in which the budding branches of slender trees make a delightful pattern against the reddening sky. Very delicate are the greys, and greens, while not less delicate are the values in the bending sky and the receding earth. Many a time has this master painted scenes like this but such is his subtle skill in composition that each new result becomes a new creation. Equally refined as these poems of early spring are his moonlight scenes and his snowy landscapes. Nor are all his subjects thus delicate, for he has interpreted sunsets, storms, mountains, and rugged nature with as forceful a brush as any painter.

No account of contemporary landscape painting would be complete without mention of Leonard Ochtman, one of our best painters and most charming interpreters of the moods of landscapes. Other men who gain their desired effects by color and tone as a means of emotional expression are Robert C. Minor, R. A. Blakelock, Frank de Haven, and Charles Melville Dewey.

Another group of men seem to accept nature as it is and strive to render with exactness her forms and her local color. In the work of Charles H. Davis, H. Bolton Jones,

Bruce Crane, and others of their kind one admires the precision of drawing and the exact coloring of a tree trunk, a spreading lawn, or a plowed field. But too frequently painters with the temperament which leads them to this kind of expression are too lavish in detail. As an example of this see Bolton Jones's "Spring" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Feb., 1908, p. 371). In this and other paintings he insists on such careful rendering of the foreground that he loses the effect of unity. This is a mistake which one never finds in C. H. Davis; one marvels at the semblance of reality which he attains by careful elimination and apparently unstudied arrangement. He did not, however, remain a realist in this limited sense. As early as 1892 when he painted "Twilight" he was beginning to show that fine appreciation of out-door (*"plein air"*) lighting which has proved him an accomplished master of the effects of color and atmosphere.

Nothing has, perhaps, made so distinctive a contribution to modern landscape art as has that frequently misunderstood movement, Impressionism.* The chief innovations of this school of Frenchmen are the extremely high key in which the pictures are painted, the attempt to give the actual values of nature, and a peculiar "broken handling composed of touches of pure color, which suggests at once the vibration and the brilliancy of sunlight." Add to this a special study of the color of shadows which are, so we at last know, full of color. An impressionistic picture must, above all, be filled with light, and painted in the peculiar "mosaic technique" with juxtaposed dots of pure color. Perhaps the

*For the best critical account of the limitations and characteristics of Impressionism see W. C. Brownell's "French Art," Chapter III, Sections 6 and 7: and D. S. MacColl's "Nineteenth Century Art," pages 1-16 and 161-168. These passages have to do with the French Impressionists but are most helpful for the understanding of the work of the American Impressionists.

The best book for explanation of the influences of the various European schools which have formed American painting is Caffin's "The Story of American Painting" already referred to in these articles. This book cannot be too highly recommended.

best of this kind of painting by Americans is that of Mr. Childe Hassam of New York. In looking at our illustration of his "Lorelei" the reader should remember that the original is even brighter in tone than it here appears; that in the sparkle of the sea, in the pinks, and greens and violets of the rocks and verdure, and in the circumambient atmosphere the artist represents a bit of nature palpitating with light and color. His "Church Nocturne—Old Lyme" is not such a perfect example of the peculiar methods of the school, but it is a delicate study in values. How save by subtle relation of light and shade could the artist give the impression of the cool moonlight on the church front and the transparent shadows within the porch?

Other artists who represent this movement are Theodore Robinson (see his "Girl and Cow," THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Dec., 1907, p. 65); J. H. Thwachtman, Miss Cassatt, Mrs. Frederick MacMonnies, Mr. J. Alden Wier, and Mr. Willard L. Metcalf. Mr. Metcalf's "Midwinter" is not a perfect example of pure Impressionism, but it distinctly shows its influence.

Work of a very different character from this is that of Edward W. Redfield and W. E. Schofield. Both were students in the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts and under Bouguereau and other French Academicians. It is difficult, however, to find anything of the latter's influence in their delightfully naturalistic paintings. Redfield frequently paints winter scenes with a snow covered foreground or the trunk and branches of a nearby tree executed in so vigorous and naturalistic a manner that by contrast the low-lying river and hills beyond take their place beautifully in the distance. Redfield's is perhaps the more unstudied art; Schofield's pictures are more respectful of conventions in their quiet harmonies and careful balance. Both men paint broadly and vigorously.

Another of the younger men who seems to enjoy painting for its own sake, and to express his pictorial ideas manfully is Mr. Paul Dougherty of New York. His work

shows more finish, perhaps more elaboration than Redfield's but it is none the less vigorous and assertive. He seems to try to do for trees and rocks, for earth and sea what the great Florentines did for the human figure,—to interpret natural forms creatively. Who besides Winslow Homer so suggests the vastness of the ocean, the lift and weight of the waves, the solemn union of land and sea? But Dougherty is not only a painter of marines, he is also an interpreter of great rolling stretches of country and of wooded valleys, with something of the same elemental feeling which makes his paintings of the sea remarkable.

The last three mentioned men and the artist whose work is about to be noticed are wholly unrelated by outward circumstance, yet they all show in one way or another a certain tendency in recent art: a tendency which may be designated as the painter's "reverence for his material," his love of good painting for its own sake. These men know how to handle pigment, how to lay it on the canvas in long brush marks, or thick impasto which tells to a distance. They do not thinly tint their canvases, they do not glaze and scumble till the appearances of nature are disguised. They paint directly. Mr. Charles Francis Browne of Chicago may be taken to represent the landscape art of the West. Educated in Boston, Philadelphia, and in Paris he produced for many years careful transcripts of nature, realistic in form and color, and based on the most approved methods of the schools. But a visit to Europe in 1904 after an absence of fifteen years brought him in contact with the painters of the Glasgow school, with Israels and other modern masters. These influences led to a rapid development of his art until he has now attained to a style of great individuality and expressiveness. Whether he paints the castles of Scotland, the rivers of France, or the pastoral scenes near his Illinois summer home, he has always an original point of view, he makes a personal use of color, and shows an appreciation of the truths of nature, all of which place him among the foremost interpreters of nature in the west.

"The Haunted House," by Charl es Francis Browne.
Owned by Mr. Wallace Heckman, Chicago.

"November," Oregon, Illinois, by Charles Francis Browne.

"Oaks in Autumn," by Charles Francis Browne.

Stewart Castle, Fife Coast, Scotland, by Charles Francis Browne.
Owned by Mr. Harry Pratt Judson, Chicago.

In the present discussion of some tendencies in contemporary painting, the story cannot be half told. A most important factor in modern art is the subjective or personal element; our best landscapists interpret not only the moods of nature but also the moods of man. Whether a painter aims realistically to reproduce the forms and colors of nature, to treat her with the tonalists more abstractly and decoratively, or with the impressionists to suggest her gaiety, her brilliancy or any one of her thousands of moods is a question, the answer to which depends on each artist's way of looking at nature, his point of view and his temperament. It is not too much to say that there are as many tendencies as there are painters of distinction. We have, perhaps, strained the truth in trying to fit into groups certain of the artists who have been mentioned. And there are others of equal importance who, in reality also stand alone. Space forbids more than mention of such individual masters of landscape art as J. Francis Murphy, Albert L. Groll, and Louis Paul Dessar. Nor may adequate account or proper praise be here given to Mr. George H. Leonard and other Americans now resident in Paris; to Mr. Hugh H. Breckinridge and the painters of Philadelphia; to Mr. L. H. Meakin and the Cincinnati group; to Mr. Fournier, Mr. Wuerpel, Mr. Wendt, Mr. Frederic C. Bartlett and other distinguished painters in the East and West.

In a country as vast as ours there is a great field for individual endeavor, and an infinite variety in the aspects of nature. Nature appears haughty and reserved to one painter; austere and grave to another; tender and responsive to a third; her aspects and her moods change with every fleeting cloud and every passing shadow. And now our painters have attained to such mastery and knowledge, such technical skill and sensitive vision, that at last they may be said to form in the truest sense a great school of landscape painting. Why need we longer look to the past? What occasion is there now for explanation or apology? There are at present working in the United States

a score or more of skilled and gifted interpreters of nature who may be compared with any similar group of any period or country. It may, indeed, be boldly declared that this group of contemporary painters form a school of landscape painting which is as great as any other in the history of art.

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Isham's "History of American Painting," C. H. Caffin's "American Masters of Painting," and the latter's "The Story of American Painting" all contain brief but excellent accounts of the great trio of early landscapists, Inness, Wyant, and Martin, and also chapters on the later landscape painters.

The International Studio has published from month to month for some years many illustrated articles on various landscape painters. This is the best magazine in America to help the layman to keep in touch with what is being accomplished in contemporary American painting.

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"The Art of Henry W. Ranger," by Paul Dougherty, article in *Brush and Pencil*, August, 1905.

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"Impressionism: The Nineteenth Century's Distinctive Contribution to Art," by Henry G. Stephens, article in *Brush and Pencil*, January, 1903.

"Charles Francis Browne, Painter," by James William Pattison, article in *The Sketch Book*, December, 1907.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(*End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for June.*)

William James

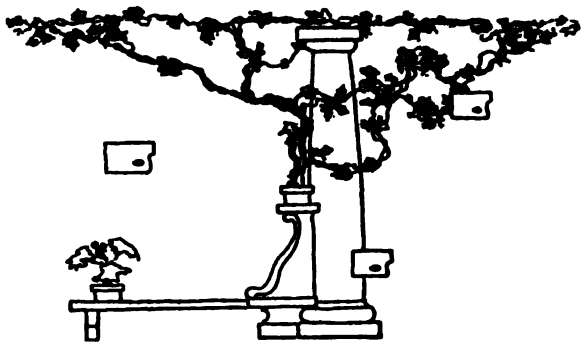
Someone has said that "Henry James is a novelist who writes like a psychologist and William James a psychologist who writes like a novelist." The epigram pays the greater compliment to the psychologist for it is much more difficult for a man of science to write charmingly of his specialty than for a literary man to acquire a mannerism and become obscure. Certain it is that William James is the most popular of philosophers and Henry James not impossibly the least popular of novelists.

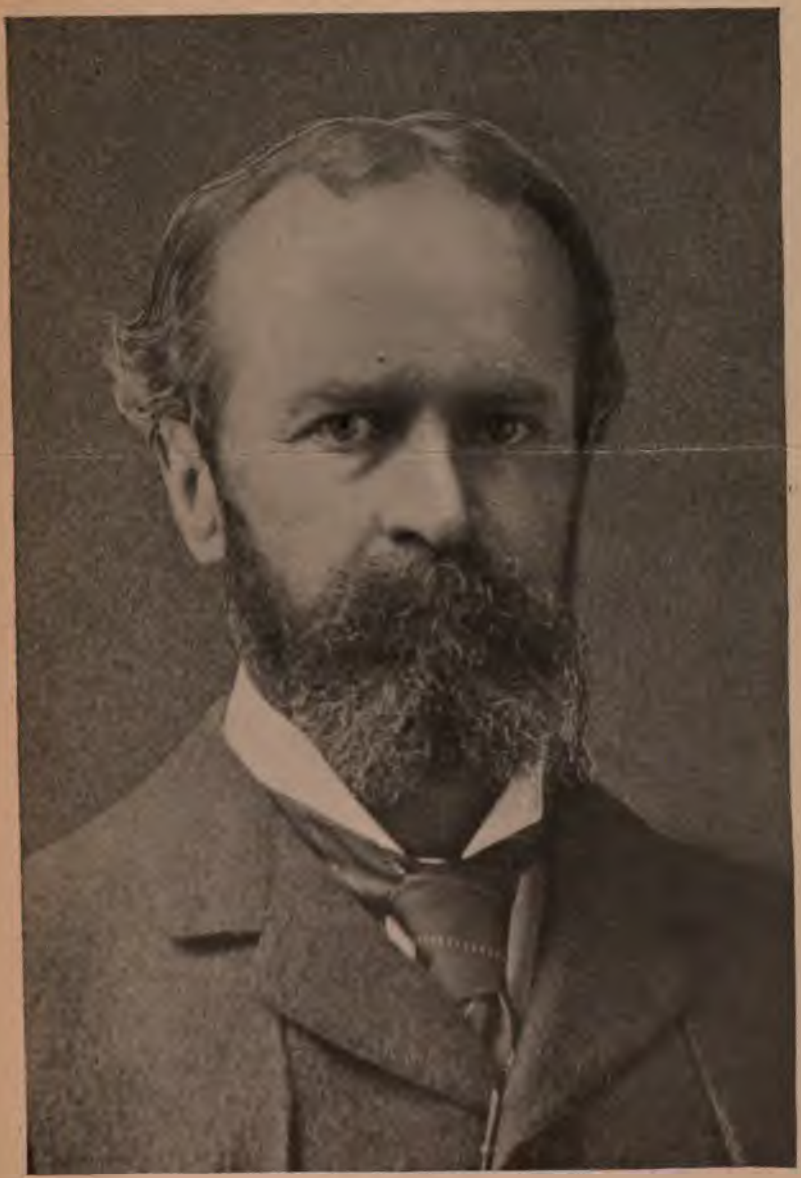
The causes of the influence and fame of William James are not far to seek. They are first and chief a sense of humor. Not without reason the average human being regards philosophy and particularly metaphysics as dreary and forbidding exercises, like certain calisthenics, difficult to perform but entirely devoid of charm, and having no real connection with the practical things of life. With William James philosophical speculation is never divorced from humor, nor is it without its practical application to human thought and action. He thinks in terms of the concrete. A passage from a delightful appreciation of William James by George Hodges affords an excellent illustration of this combination of qualities: "When he is tempted to follow his arguments into regions where logic takes the place of life, 'I hear,' he says, 'that inward monitor of which W. H. Clifford once wrote, whispering "Bosh."' "

To the qualities of humor and concreteness may be added a freedom from dogmatism. Mr. James does not attempt to formulate a final system of philosophy. He is too openminded, too much interested in the vast and unexplored fields into which modern research is, for the first time, entering. Thus he is an enthusiastic student of all bizarre phenomena,—spiritualism, Christian Science and the like. These as well as the most orthodox and conventional realms of thought excite his interest and demand his investigation.

Mr. James entered psychology by way of medicine and thus has the necessary groundwork of physiological knowledge upon which to base his psychological theories. He has held a chair of philosophy at Harvard University since 1872, recently becoming professor emeritus. He was born in 1842.

Mr. James' published works include: "Principles of Psychology," "Briefer Course" (of the same); "The Will to Believe and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy," "Talks on Psychology and Life's Ideals," and "Pragmatism."





William James.

Luther Burbank at Home.

Some Great American Scientists*

IX. Luther Burbank

By Garrett P. Serviss.

LUTHER BURBANK, "the wizard of the flowers," who has unquestionably introduced more new fruits, new blossoms, and new trees to the knowledge of mankind than any other man in history, was born at Lancaster, Massachusetts, March 7, 1849. He was a farmer's son, and a lover of nature from the start. The wonder of the vegetable world especially impressed his young mind, and made him thoughtful from his earliest years. All children love flowers, but few understand them. Young Burbank was born a botanist, and he showed not only a fondness for the flowers and the fruits of his mother's garden, but a comprehension of them rather beyond his years. His mother was a person of remarkable character, and from her he probably derived his bent for the intimate study of nature. When I visited his experimental farms in 1905 she was still living with him, hale and beautiful, with the beauty of peaceful, contented old age. In spite of her ninety-two years she still took pleasure in sitting out of doors, under the shade of the trees that her son had created—trees of a kind that would not have existed but for him, and enjoying the fragrance of the strangely beautiful flowers that owed their existence to his genius and his fostering skill. His father died early and in 1875 young Burbank, famous at twenty-

*The first article of this series, "Asa Gray," by Prof. Charles Reid Barnes, appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September; the second, "John James Audubon," by Prof. Samuel C. Schmucker, in October; the third, "Simon Newcomb," by Prof. Malcolm McNeill, in November; the fourth, "Louis Agassiz," by David Starr Jordan, in December; the fifth, "Samuel Pierpont Langley," by William F. Magie, in January; sixth, "Thomas Alva Edison," by George Iles, in February; seventh, "Edward Drinker Cope," by William Hosea Ballou, in March; eighth, "John Fiske," by Thomas F. Perry, in April.

six years, for he had already produced the "Burbank potato" in his mother's garden at Lunenberg, Mass., removed to the Golden State and chose his residence in the fertile Santa Rosa valley, some seventy-five miles north of San Francisco.

The soil and the climate were almost providentially suited to the career that he had worked out for himself. The valley is geographically new. It follows a long hollow in the land, much of which was formerly occupied by an arm of the sea extending from San Francisco bay. It is a region where volcanic phenomena have been active in the past, and where even yet, as the experience of 1906 proves, severe earthquakes are not unknown. It is the universal experience of mankind that such places are favorable to the vegetable world. The occasional unheaval of the underlying strata brings to the surface fresh mineral constituents to enrich the soil and stimulate the growth of plants.

The climatic character of the region is equally suited to the development and perfection of plant life. It is warm without the enervating excess that is to be found farther south during the hotter months, and lying between parallel ranges of mountains, at no great distance from the tempering influence of the sea, the land is well protected against atmospheric disturbance.

Here Mr. Burbank, with the memory of what he had already accomplished in bleak New England to encourage him, and with the stimulation of unfamiliar varieties of plants, flowers, fruits, and trees to lead him on, began his work of transforming the world of vegetation.

He had the enormous advantage over most of his competitors that he was emphatically a thinker. Not a college man, he had received the rudiments of a good education, and he had early fallen under the influence of Emerson's writings. Emerson has stimulated many writers; in Burbank he stimulated a worker and a discoverer. He remains, to this day, Mr. Burbank's favorite author, and Emerson's books constitute a kind of second Bible for the

botanical wizard of Santa Rosa. Mr. Burbank's mind is poetical, one might almost say dreamy, in its operations. The imagination plays a great part in all that he does. He pictures to himself a new and more delicious fruit, or a more brilliant and more graceful flower, and then he sets to work with complete confidence in the undeveloped capacities of nature, to bring his new fruit, or his new flower into existence. He does not pretend to create. He does not think that the power of creation resides in man. He knows that all that man can do is to discern, choose, select, encourage, foster, and develop tendencies already existing in nature. But he has limitless faith in the efficiency of human superintendence and control over these tendencies.

Once started in his career Mr. Burbank gave himself up to it with perfect singleness of purpose and of heart. That is, perhaps, the greatest secret of his success. Nothing has ever been able to distract his attention from his work. He has even remained unmarried, content with the sympathetic companionship of his mother, and a few members of his family.

All day he is in his gardens or on his experimental farm, laboring with his own hands and directing his assistants. His manner, when he is showing the few visitors that he will permit to interrupt his work about his estate, exhibits so much tender regard for the delicate and beautiful forms of inarticulate life which surround him, that one is strangely moved by it. His touch upon a flower is like a caress. These things are, to him, his children, and he unquestionably loves them as children. He will embrace the trunk of one of his trees—trees that have not their like anywhere in the world—with the delight of a child, showing his visitor what the girth is, telling him its age, recalling its history, descanting on its excellences and its future, and regarding it all the while with the loving glances that one would bestow upon a dear friend.

In one sense there is no history in a life like that. It seems to run along quietly without events. But in another

sense it is intensely dramatic. A hundred wonders are developing at once, but often it requires the eye and the knowledge of a trained botanist to appreciate them. When Professor De Vries, the celebrated Dutch botanist, visited Santa Rosa in 1904, he could hardly credit what he saw. He beheld things which science had pronounced to be practically impossible. He saw the supposedly impossible chasm between different species and different genera of plants completely bridged. In front of Mr. Burbank's modest house, bordering the street, and shading the roadway, is to be seen a row of trees, perhaps fifty feet tall, which in less than a score of years have sprung up from seed produced by the crossing of two distinct kinds of walnut, and these trees are unlike either of their parents. The story of these new trees, brought into existence by Mr. Burbank's skill, is truly wonderful. And the wonder is increased when we learn that he has made two separate species by simply changing what he calls the "father" tree. Taking the pollen from the flower of an English walnut he dusted it upon the stigmas of a California walnut. Then he waited until the impregnated flowers, carefully guarded, had developed into nuts, and these he planted. In thirteen or fourteen years, trees thirty or forty feet tall had grown up from the nuts and these trees were unlike either of their parents. They were a new species, and Mr. Burbank named them the Paradox walnut. It is asserted that these are the fastest growing trees known in the temperate zone. But, unlike other fast growing trees, their wood is as hard and firm as *lignum vitae*. It is beautifully colored and admirably suited for the uses of the cabinet maker. The trees, moreover, are very umbrageous, spreading their shade far around, but, virtually, they are not nut-bearers.

An ordinary experimenter might have remained satisfied with this achievement, but not so Mr. Burbank. He repeated the experiment in another way. He chose the same "mother," the California walnut, but this time he impregnated its flower with pollen from the stamens of an

eastern black walnut, and again he waited. This time, the planted nuts grew up into slow-growing trees, utterly different both from the others and from their parents, and remarkable for their nut-bearing capacity. These trees Mr. Burbank named the Royal walnut. Thus, as he is fond of pointing out, from the same mother, but different fathers, two species of trees, new to botany, have been developed—one a walnut that may well take a high rank both as a shade tree and a producer of the most excellent cabinet wood, and the other not less remarkable as a bearer of nuts. And both of these new species are fixed. They reproduce their own kind. They are new additions to the vegetable wealth of the world.

Some of Mr. Burbank's experiments in breeding new forms of nut trees have their amusing side. They show that nature often knows better than man what ought to be done. For instance, it occurred to him that the shells of walnuts might be improved by making them thinner and easier to break. So, after his usual manner of proceeding, he watched for nuts with unusually thin shells and planted them. They produced plants bearing nuts with shells of varying thickness, and again he planted the thinnest shelled nuts. Eventually he obtained a variety of walnut with shells so thin that simple pressure would break them. But he had forgotten the squirrels and the birds! They were as glad as he could be to find nuts so easily broken, and they took complete possession of the prize. The result was that he had to abandon this thin-shelled walnut experiment.

It will be observed that Mr. Burbank does not confine his operations to one line. Some of his varieties are the result of crossing, as the new walnut trees; others arise from selection. He sees a tendency in a plant to variation in some special direction. Then he chooses specimens in which this tendency is particularly strong, and puts them aside, gives them every opportunity and every advantage for development, protects them against competition and

adverse influences, and encourages them, by all the devices he can contrive, to continue their course. Thus he leads them on to astonishing lengths, which would never have been attained under natural conditions. For nature usually frowns upon departure from her customary lines. She stamps out independence. She has chosen her course and as long as the general conditions that govern her remain unaltered, she has little mercy for the nonconformist among her children. She is, in general, rigidly conservative, although she contains, locked in her bosom, an almost infinite store of latent tendencies to variation. The genius of Luther Burbank resides in his marvelous ability to discern these tendencies, and his matchless skill in bringing them out, putting aside the restraining hand of nature, and compelling her to give her unruly children a chance to show what is in them.

A beautiful example of Mr. Burbank's wonderful insight into these hidden capabilities is furnished by his crimson poppy. The fields of California frequently glow as if sprinkled with gold on account of the presence of a wild yellow poppy. On one occasion, Mr. Burbank found one of these wild poppies which showed a delicate crimson line in the corolla. Instantly his imagination set to work. That touch of crimson revealed to him a submerged life tendency in the flower, which he knew needed only a little artificial aid to become strong and prevail. His sympathetic nature was stirred. He would be the friend of this friendless child of nature; he would birng it out of its obscurity and neglect; he would give it the chance that nature denied it. He took that flower and guarded it. He planted its seed apart, where it could not be choked out by the merciless competition that had hitherto kept it down. From the seed grew poppies with more crimson in their flowers. He selected and planted again. Every generation blushed redder, until in a little while he had produced a magnificent new blossom, a true crimson poppy, now recognized as one of the most beautiful of flowers. Evidently there had been crimson poppies at

some time in the past but they had grown out of fashion with nature, the influence of environment, or some adverse fate had driven them out of existence, but the tendency remained latent, and an expression of that tendency having caught the eye of Luther Burbank, he helped it upward to renewed strength.

On another occasion, Mr. Burbank's inspiration revealed to him a surprising thing lying hidden in the acrid, useless, inedible little knobs growing on potato vines. There were appearances about these "potato balls" which convinced him that if they had the chance, they would become fruits, fit for human consumption. He followed the process of selection as he only knows how to do it, and the result was the appearance of a new garden fruit, the "pomato," thus named because it grows on a *potato* vine and resembles a *tomato*. His "Bartlett plum" is yet another example of the same curious results of selection and encouragement applied to almost invisible tendencies in plants, or tendencies which reveal themselves clearly only in the case of those rare phenomena which gardeners and fruit cultivators call "sports." Mr. Burbank happened to find a plum which had the characteristic flavor of a Bartlett pear. That plum, or rather its pit, went into the ground under the eye of the master of such "sports," and when it had produced a tree, the characteristic flavor was discernible in its fruits. Again selection was exercised, and the final result was the production of a species of plum tree whose fruit tasted so much like Bartlett pears that it has been said that the eater who closes his eyes could never be persuaded to believe that it is a plum and not a pear that he is devouring.

As has already been sufficiently hinted, these marvels are simply marvels of development and not of original creation. Mr. Burbank himself avers that he is able to do these things only because the world is so very, very old, and so very, very full of life. Plant life has existed in varying forms for untold aeons, and during that almost limitless expanse of time it has developed thousands upon

thousands of forms, the majority of which have now become little more than memories. Yet these remain, they are never entirely extinguished. They are hereditary impulses which will occasionally manifest themselves, and which are capable of astonishing development when encouraged. They exist in the underworld of life, and only appear fitfully and for a passing moment on the surface, unless a helping hand seizes them when for an instant they partially emerge. The face of nature bears but a temporary expression of the infinite life that throbs deep within her bosom. In her long history, nature has made millions and millions of experiments, she has had her moods and her fashions, and although these things appear to have passed, they have not been forgotten, and though latent, they retain the potency of life.

The results of crossing also often exhibit the recrudescence of latent tendencies. When Mr. Burbank crossed the plum and the apricot and produced the new fruit called the "plumcot," a fruit of a flavor unlike that of any of nature's own fruits, it was not merely a combination which he produced, but in the combination he brought out latent tendencies from one or from both of the parents which would otherwise have remained submerged. The same is true of his "Primus berry" which he made by crossing the Siberian raspberry with the California dewberry. This is said to be the first fixed species of the family *rubus* ever produced. It seems an absolutely new fruit, but its newness does not consist merely in a combination of the qualities of the raspberry and the dewberry, but also in the development of a tendency in nature which, but for the crossing, would not thus have manifested itself. These new fruits themselves show the most amazing tendencies to variation at times, giving in that way a hint of the wonderful store of varying life forces locked up in them. Thus the "plumcot," already spoken of, although a new fruit, and known for only a few years, shows as many varieties as the apple. Some of the fruits have a yellow, some a pink, some a white, and some a red pulp, and there are corresponding

differences of flavor, although the general character of the fruit remains the same.

Occasionally, Mr. Burbank encounters experiences that are almost appalling to an imaginative mind. He summons up, unexpectedly, from the deep of the past, strange monstrous forms, some of which are so useless, so repellant, so horrible even, that instantly he destroys them as things unfit to live. For nature's past, like that of a human life, is not made up entirely of beautiful and desirable elements. She has had her tragedies and her sins and the memory of these can never be eradicated, and occasionally they will show themselves when her depths are stirred, when the curtains of ancestral night are lifted. When Mr. Burbank crossed the raspberry and the strawberry, he had not imagined the thing that showed itself—not a shapely plant loaded with delicious fruit, but a cluster of tall, ungainly stalks ablaze with strange flowers, but producing no fruit whatever!

Among ornamental flowers, Mr. Burbank has worked wonders no less than those pertaining to useful fruits, trees and grains. By crossing and by selection, he has enriched the garden with varieties of beauty in form, color, and perfume hardly dreamt of before. In this direction, his taste is almost euphemistic. He will breed and select and breed and select, season after season, to develop a particular tint of color, predetermined in his own mind, or to give to a nodding poppy a special carriage of the head, or a certain droop of the stem, which seems to him desirable. And the marvel of it is that he can produce these foreordained results. The variety of tendencies at his command is so inexhaustible that as long as patience and skill do not fail, almost any desired form or color or flavor or perfume can be brought out.

It is no wonder that in 1904 the Carnegie Institution set aside an annuity of $10,000 a year for ten years to enable Mr. Burbank to continue, on an enlarged scale, his wonderful experiments in his gardens at Santa Rosa and

in his neighboring experimental farm at Sebastopol, for truly his dream that he may be able to point out to mankind the way to transform the whole world of plants to suit its needs and its pleasures, is not altogether a dream.

Child Labor and Vagrancy

By Philip Davis
Of Civic Service House, Boston.

IN England, curiously enough, child labor in its relation to the factory system, where it is at its worst, had a philanthropic as well as an economic origin. At the close of the seventeenth century, England found herself "barely able to hold her own against new continental rivals." Child labor, for which the factory system, by its rapid development in every direction, opened new fields, came to the nation's rescue, as it were.

"The noticeable feature of our history," says B. K. Gray,* "is the adoption of this tendency [the working of little children] as an instrument of philanthropy. Whereas in the early years of the seventeenth century the philanthropic policy was to find employment for adults, at the close of the seventeenth century this policy had given place to the working of little children." The dangers of child labor, thus auspiciously inaugurated on a national scale, soon became apparent, and quickly roused the thinking men to action. As early as 1796, the Manchester physicians, constituted into a Board of Health, recognizing that "the large factories are generally injurious to the constitution of those employed in them, from the close confinement which is enjoined, from the debilitating effects of hot and impure air, and from the want of active exercises which nature points out as essential in childhood and youth to invigorate the system, and to fit our species for the employments and for the duties of manhood," passed the following resolu-

*"A History of English Philanthropy," p. 103.

tion: "the untimely labor of the night and the protracted labor of the day, with respect to children, not only tend to diminish future expectations as to the general sum of life and industry, by impairing the strength and destroying the vital stamina of the rising generation, but it too often gives encouragement to idleness, extravagance, and profligacy in the parents, who contrary to the order of nature subsist by the oppression of their offspring."

In other words, England was warned, ere it was yet too late, by men best qualified to speak, that if its little children are allowed to work prematurely, it may soon have to reckon not only with a class of worn-out, worthless workmen on the brink of vagrancy but with an increased vagrant and pauper class recruited from the children's own parents whom they were meant to subsidize by premature toil.

England paid little heed to the solemn warning. Its whole body of child labor legislation from 1796 (when the Manchester Board of Health wisely demanded a "general system of laws") to the Boer War, presents a series of palliatives which trimmed the evil but never uprooted it.

What was the result? "The blow that the wise men had foreseen fell with the Boer War. In a day, it seemed the nation awoke to the fact that its physical vigor was sapped. It had no material for soldiers. The percentage of rejection at the enlistment stations appalled every reflective mind. A London newspaper asserted that of 11,000 men examined in Manchester, 10,000 were rejected. The standards were lowered, the tests were made easy; the rejections continued to be most alarming. Regiments were patched together of boys and anemic youths. They were food for hospitals, not for powder. Once in South Africa enteric swept them off like flies; they were only the shells of men. . . . The English had always trusted so implicitly in their traditional physical stamina."* But a change, "tremendous but unnoted had gone on in the habits and

*A. J. McElway. Annals, 1906, p. 322.

stamina and physical type" of Englishmen, the cumulative results of which the Boer War at last made plain to the whole nation.

Had not the Manchester physicians foretold these results in 1796? Had not Lord Macaulay prophesied the same results in 1846 when he told his countrymen "your overworked boys will become a feeble and ignoble race of men, the parents of a more feeble progeny?"

It is contended in this paper that this country, which, according to Emerson, always imitated England, often at its worst, as in this matter of child labor, may yet awake some day to a similar situation, if the well-being of its "overworked boys"—and girls—is not attended to. We are just beginning to count up the cost of child labor, particularly its effects upon the health of the children and their future in industry—to take no higher ground. The conviction is growing upon the minds of those that are grappling with child labor problems that many a vagrant is either the father of the working child or the child itself, "gone to seed," as it were. In the latter sense, the toiling child and the vagrant, too often, represent the beginning and end of an unwise industrial career of one and the same person,—the two faces of the same coin. Not that every vagrant of today is necessarily the child worker of yesterday, nor that every child worker of today will necessarily be the vagrant of tomorrow, but a deeper study of the causes of vagrancy on the one hand, and of the effects of child labor on the other would show that the two sets of phenomena which we have always considered apart are better understood when considered together. They prove to be not only casually related but essentially complementary.

I. CAUSES OF VAGRANCY.

All vagrants look alike to the knowing police-officer whose business it is to keep an eye on them. And the officer's policy is everywhere the same: to "vag 'em," *i. e.*, arrest them on a charge of vagrancy and commit them if

possible. But to sustain his charge, under the law, the officer must know his man, at least enough to prove that he belongs to one of the following classes of vagrants covered by the statutes:

(1). "Idle persons, who, not having visible means of support, are living without lawful employment; (2). Persons wandering abroad and visiting tippling shops, or houses of ill fame, or lodging in groceries, out-houses, market places, sheds, barns, or in the open air, and not giving a good account of themselves; (3). Persons wandering abroad and begging, or who go about from door to door, or place themselves in the streets, highways, passages, or other public places to beg or receive alms."

This feeble attempt at classification of vagrants in American statutes of today marks the entire advance made since the passage of the old English statute where vagrants were poetically described as "persons who wake on the night, and sleep on the day, and haunt customable taverns and ale houses and routs about and no man wot from whence they come nor whither they go." The naive confession of ignorance of the subject frankly expressed in the last few words of the quotation is not found in modern statutes but one suspects both the law and the officer equally guilty of it if one judges either by any standard of efficiency. Vagrants have been dealt with en masse. All studies in print with a few worthy exceptions, deal with them in terms of figures and percentages, much as our immigrants are handled in the present literature on immigration. Yet vagrants, too, are human. Every one of them has a past which throws more light on his present than any sets of figures based on averages. A study of every vagrant's past, if such a thing were possible, would inevitably bring us to the conclusion that the roots of vagrancy may be traced back to childhood.

Here are the stories of flesh-and-blood vagrants. One of them is a young man, the other a middle-aged man, the third an old man. They represent three distinct stages of vagrants, also approximately the three classes of vagrants outlined in the statutes:

First case: One who is tramping in search of work with the intention of finding it—a vagrant in the making.

Second case: One who is "looking for work" with no intention of finding it—a full fledged vagrant.

Third case: One who "won't work" and frankly admits it—an incorrigible vagrant.

It is natural, as in the present instances, that the first one should have his "home," so to speak, in an employment office, the second one in a municipal lodging house, the third, in a pauper institution.

CASE I.

P. B. Aged 18, Italian, born in New York, only child; parents died when he was eleven years of age; promptly quit school, sold newspapers and lived in the Newsboys' Lodging House until he was sixteen, then entered a mill, had his "thumb smashed;" was in the hospital four months, worked as a farm-hand off and on, began tramping from town to town in search of work without success; beat his way from Providence to Boston on a freight train one cold night last January, found himself locked in a box car which was side-tracked, and left over night, enjoyed an all-night freeze; arrived in Boston penniless, hung around employment offices by day, and slept in Wayfarer's Lodge at night, glad to saw wood for "hard tack and soup" in the morning—his only meal often; presently turned out of the Lodge and reduced to begging for food as well as shelter in which condition I found him.

CASE II.

J. K. Aged 27, Irish, born in Hudson, Mass.; large family, father died when he was eight months, entered school at five, felt continuous eyestrain, turned blind at thirteen, operation restored sight to left eye only, returned to school and graduated; sold papers ever since six years of age, bell boy at fifteen, traveled all over New England and later from Maine to Florida back and forth; entered pulp mill at nineteen drifting from mill to mill, came to Boston, turned

up at Lodge where I met him and on learning his story provided him with money to return home; week later found him in a Boston court—the last I saw of him.

CASE III.

M. W. Aged 60, American, born in South Boston, small family, father machinist who fractured leg, died when son was ten; boy attended school regularly, never "hooked jack" except once when Stony Brook overflowed, "went to see the sight;" graduated at thirteen, became cash boy, then bundle boy, tobacco stripper, meat cutter at $600 a year; married at twenty-seven, meat market burned down eight months after marriage, turned common laborer, drifting from city to country, did haying and chores practically for keep, leaving wife uncared for; tramped all over New England; returned to Boston finally, "bunking on Common" and begging for food, suspected by police and later arrested in a raid on the Wayfarer's Lodge; "sent up" for vagrancy to State Farm for six months, again for twelve, again for eighteen, again for two years, is now wintering at the Lodge "washing dishes for feed and bunk;" expects to be turned out onto the street in the spring eventually to be sent up again to State Farm.

"As you look over your past," I asked him, "what do you regard the chief obstacle in your life to have been?"

"The fact that I had no trade," he answered positively. But I knew from other sources that drink had something to do with it.

What are the causes of vagrancy as revealed in these three life studies? Drink? Sexual excess? The street? or is it the common cause of orphanage? accident? or temporary unemployment? Clearly the causes are diverse and many: some primary, some secondary, and all so intricately combined that the disentanglement is almost impossible. One thing is clear: All their troubles begin quite early—at an age when they should have known abundant leisure and no labor or trouble at all. Note the following: (1) Each one began work in the strict adherence to the Ameri-

can maxim of "starting early in life;" (2) no one was prepared for work in any educational or technical sense. I talked long with each about his particular education. It was practically the same in all cases: The three R's in various combinations. Yet one was educated more than a half a century ago and in Boston; the other less than a quarter of a century ago and in the country; the third but a decade ago and in New York. Bearing in mind the striking difference in time and place one may fairly say that each one was born in the midst of an industrial situation in total contrast with either of the other two. Yet their training for life work was exactly the same, and they all "started early." Small wonder they all failed! It would have been wonderful if they had not failed.

II. EFFECTS OF CHILD LABOR.

Now turn from the causes of vagrancy to the effects of child labor and you will see that the beginning and end of an industrial career are often very much like cause and effect.

The effects of child labor on the health and future of the child is our greatest concern. Unfortunately there is very little scientific data on this most important phase of the child labor problem—and personal impression obviously will not do. Our government through its various departments is collecting data on every conceivable subject excepting the only really important one—the well-being of our children. We have even a "Government Information Service"—an altogether new department which advertises itself as "the greatest information bureau in the world, maintained by the United States Government at Washington for the publication and distribution of everything known on every conceivable subject, such as olive oil and its substitutes, the mineral waters of the United States and all sorts of Geographic names." But if you should ask the "Government Information Service" for information on the effects of child labor on two generations of working children it could only refer you to a report of the Bureau of Labor, issued in 1904. The report—to make the best of what

there is on the subject—"relates to the employment at labor of children under sixteen years of age, their earnings, the hours of labor required of them and other conditions affecting their well-being." Fifteen thousand eight hundred and fifty-seven children, found in 215 selected establishments, located in the thirteen leading industrial States of the Union, are the subject of this report. Concerning their health the report says on page 528 (No. 52-May, 1904):

"Many of the children seen in the establishments visited appeared to be undersized, the pinched, worn faces, the thin arms, and puny bodies of many of them giving evidence that they were of underweight. Among the children reported many were physically unfit for the labor required of them. A few who began work before they were ten years old, though not actually broken down, were at the age of fifteen so worn out, their energies so far exhausted, that advancement in productive power much beyond the point already reached seemed quite improbable unless a period of complete rest should intervene."

Again under "Conditions Affecting Children" (p. 506), the report shows in detail the sinister effects on the health of the working children due to long hours, unsanitary and unsafe factory conditions, and the danger to life and limb of certain occupations.

Next in rank to this federal report comes that excellent state report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education, issued in 1906. The report presents the result of an investigation conducted in forty-three cities and towns of Massachusetts for the purpose of determining what the working children from fourteen to sixteen were doing and what the educational and economic value of these years have been and might be to them. Five thousand four hundred and ninety-five of the 25,000 children between fourteen and sixteen at work or "idle," were followed in 3,157 homes and 354 establishments representing fifty-five selected industries. Thirty-three and one-third per cent. of these were found in unskilled industries and sixty-five per cent. in low grade industries, thus a little less than two per cent. were in high grade industries. Lack of skill and low wages are partly responsible for the

children's shifting from firm to firm. More than 1,000 children between fourteen and sixteen worked for two firms, and less than 1,000 for three or more firms during less than two years. Out of about a thousand children who left their first employment, more than half quit in less than a year. Think of the effect upon the child of this constant shifting and waywardness! Not even the so-called "habit of work," by which child labor is so often justified, will stand by the child in later life. It is therefore not at all surprising that working men of such beginnings often succumb to distaste for work in the very prime of life. The effects, then, of child labor upon the health of the working child and its stability in industry are well calculated to produce a class of men whose ill health and shiftlessness would naturally predispose them to vagrancy in its diverse forms.

Thus, whether we consider these facts in the light of the vagrant's past, or in the light of the child worker's future, we are forced to recognize that, not all, but certain causes of vagrancy almost exactly correspond to certain effects of child labor. This conclusion is sustained by the highest national authorities on all social questions, chief among them Dr. Felix Adler and Miss Jane Addams, two distinguished representatives of the National Child Labor Committee. Nor is the conclusion either surprising or new. It simply drives home the truth that you can't burn life's candle at both ends.

How Connecticut Got Her Woman Factory Inspector

By Delia Lyman Porter

IT started with the reading of a book, "The Long Day," by Dorothy Richardson. After I had read the thrilling story of her experiences in trying to get work in New York, of the vile talk and immoral atmosphere of many of the factories, I determined to find out for myself what the "long day" of the New Haven factory girl was like. And so interesting did the quest become that from that day to thus, I have been absorbed in the problem of Connecticut working girls,—how they live and what we women who have more advantages and more leisure can do to help them.

I began by visiting the principal factories of New Haven and seeing for myself the conditions of work. I mimeographed question blanks covering factory and home life, and to these, by means of the intervention of mission, settlement, and club workers, I got answers from eighty-two factory girls, throwing a flood of light on many interesting points. Then I cultivated the acquaintance of as many working girls as I could lay hold of, inviting them to my house for a cup of chocolate in the evening or on Saturday afternoon for a cup of tea, over which we discussed with absolute unreserve the conditions under which they worked. Perhaps the most illuminating talk was with a forewoman from one of the most poorly managed factories I visited, whom I asked to come and see me. She came after her day's work and I persuaded her to stay to dinner. What a revelation that talk was! The gulf between her life and mine! She had never even been in my section of the town before. And the heartbreaking stories of the vile talk to which almost every girl who works must be subjected, and of the often immoral foremen who use their power over young and innocent girls, forcing them either to accept

their plans or be discharged! I also consulted the State Factory Inspector and read inspection reports from other states.

In all these ways I got the material for my paper which was finally as long as a Ph. D. thesis. In it I portrayed the "Long Day" of the six thousand New Haven factory girls, how many of them rise at five to do house work before they start; how hard they work from seven to six with one hour at noon which is often spent in eating their lunch at the bench where they work; how poor the ventilation is; how tired they get about four in the afternoon; how unnourishing are the meager breakfast and luncheon; how they hurry home to supper, but are either so tired they soon go to bed or crave the diversion which they can usually find only in the vaudeville theater or wretched cheap dances from which come deplorable results. Their wages average from six to seven dollars a week, though often more and often less. This is spent largely on clothes. Those who do not live at home cannot pay for decent board and have any residue for clothes and other necessities on such a wage.

As a result of this study, I felt the best way to help was to get a woman factory inspector appointed for Connecticut, and to this I bent all my energies. I first got the approval of the Chief Inspector who verified all the facts of my investigation, and then read my paper to as many women's clubs as possible. Early securing the coöperation of the Industrial Committee of the Federation of Women's Clubs, I was asked to read it in many parts of the state, where I urged similar local studies. This was in the spring of 1906. In the fall and winter I read parts of my paper to the governor-elect who thereafter recommended a woman inspector in his message as did also the chief inspector. I read it to senators and representatives and people who might influence them and I wrote and instigated supporting articles in the press in different parts of the state. We got the Federated Clubs to appoint industrial committees who

should get petitions signed and should influence legislators from their district and the press.

In January, President Luther of Trinity College presented our bill in the senate. The petitions began to pour in in an avalanche from all over the state, far more than for any other measure of the session. Connecticut was apparently in an uproar to get a woman inspector (and this is what the coöperation of women's clubs can effect). At our hearing before the Labor Committee on February 6 we had not only the support of the working girls, one of whom went up with me and testified that with such an inspector to advise, the rubber strike which she had led three years before, would never have been, but we had also the support of the leading manufacturers of the State, a printed list of a hundred of whom was given to each legislator with a little pamphlet, "The Need of a Woman Inspector," which we distributed by thousands throughout the state. The committee recommended the passage of the bill, and on June 11 the bill was unanimously approved by the Senate. But after a sharp and exciting debate, for though there was no opposition to the factory inspector herself, there was much to the form of her appointment which was to be on the recommendations of a six-year commission of three women appointed by the governor. This method we had demanded because we knew, from the experience of other states, that a poor woman inspector was worse than none and we felt the appointment must be kept entirely out of politics. This some politicians did not, of course, like.

So far, all had gone as merrily as a marriage bell. At the close of the debate in the Senate even the aged doorkeeper, upon seeing my evident joy, remarked sympathetically, "Want it for yourself, ma'am, I suppose." But "the best laid plans of mice and men gang aft aglee." The enemies of the commission idea worked so secretly in the House that when it came up later in June it was voted down absolutely and to all appearances finally. We had supposed the House to be all right and had not attempted so arduous

a campaign of education as in the Senate. But now began our real hard work, compared to which all hitherto was as child's play. We must change the opinion of the two hundred and fifty Representatives within the three or four days which then seemed the time before the final decision. No time was lost. The next morning we were in Hartford explaining the error of their ways to the misguided Representatives of the day before. Time fails to tell of the hundreds of letters written, the interviews employed. Suffice it to say on July 16 a glorious victory was ours and the Woman Inspector Bill was passed, commission and all. In appointing me on the commission, the governor presented me with the pen with which he signed the bill.

From many candidates we selected Miss Corcoran, an ex-factory worker who has had wide experience as a social secretary in both factory and department store, and is unusually fitted for the place. She is already doing a splendid work and more than justifying all our labor. I have asked all the Women's Clubs of our State to back her up by appointing industrial committees who shall introduce her to working girls and employes as she visits each town, and so enable her to get at true conditions as she could not otherwise do.

And so because of a commission chosen and backed by thousands of interested women all over the State (two unique features in inspection work) we believe our Connecticut woman inspector will be able to do a greater work than any other has been able to accomplish. Other States may follow our example for the getting of our commission-chosen inspector bill passed has been pronounced by one of the greatest authorities in the country "to be the greatest achievement in behalf of working women for a quarter of a century."

And now if every Chautauqua Circle which reads this story might be impelled to do what it can for working girls all over our country! Do you ask how? Briefly as follows:

1. Call for a reading course on industrial conditions

and what is done to better them—as fascinating a study as can be conceived—and begin by reading "The Long Day."

2. Have an Industrial Committee in each Circle and especially put on it any kindred of employers of women.

3. Let this committee investigate local conditions somewhat as in the New Haven study described above.

4. If the need of noon lunch clubs and evening clubs for recreation and improvement is apparent, start such clubs. Transmute the culture you are all absorbing into pleasure and profit for those who have no time or strength for reading, by imparting it at these clubs.

5. Study local and state laws governing women's labor and, if not enforced, report to the State Inspector and to the Consumers League, and be ready to support by petition and by influencing public opinion any good new laws proposed. If your State has no woman inspector, get one, chosen by commission, and back her up by your interest.

If every member of a Chautauqua Circle and of a Woman's Club throughout our land becomes thus interested, the threatened contest between labor and capital will never become the terrible fact which is so often foretold.

Augustus Saint-Gaudens

The tributes to the character and genius of Saint-Gaudens which have been called forth since his death a few months ago, have been a revelation to many persons of the debt which America owes to this great artist.

He was so richly endowed with the rarest artistic gifts that his interpretation of the spirit of his time, as expressed through his works, made a direct and sure appeal. Men and women of artistic training and critical habit of mind have vied with each other in analyzing and paying tribute to his remarkable powers; and multitudes of other men and women far too simple minded to put into words their understanding of his work have felt instinctively its strong human quality.

At the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, a collection of his works, more complete than those of any one artist ever before shown in America, were gathered together at the time of his birthday, the city in this way commemorating her illustrious son. During the six weeks of this exhibit, tens of thousands of people visited the Museum and illustrations of the more notable statues and reliefs were reproduced widely by the daily press. A writer in summing up the impressions made by the exhibit and in particular the sculptor's intense interest in the portrayal of character said, "It is this poignant and dramatic element in his genius that first subtly and gradually but then with a kind of thrilling force, moves the imagination as the collection of Saint-Gaudens' works is surveyed."

A lifetime of sixty years seems at best a scant allowance for a human career, yet estimated by the extent of Mr. Saint-Gaudens' influence upon the art of this country, it measures a full span.

Of French and Irish parentage, his own birthplace being Dublin, he came to New York when a very small child, and his Celtic temperament throughout his life responded sym-

pathetically to the atmosphere of the new world. Out of his Paris training and his three years in Rome he brought back to his own land the creative enthusiasm of the Italian Renaissance which sought to express individuality in true and beautiful forms, unhampered by tradition.

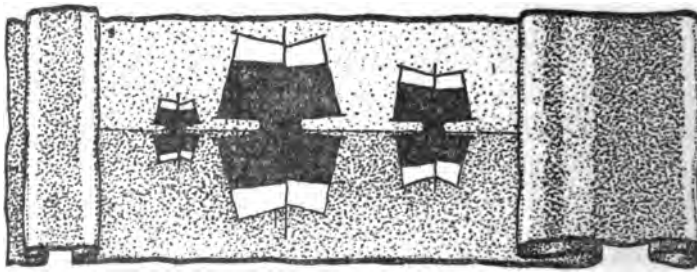
When he began his work in this country, our sculpture was in a decadent state, slavishly bound to classic models but entirely devoid of the classic spirit which spoke the message of its own time. Mr. Saint-Gaudens' work sought for the sincere expression of the highest truth and this he accomplished through the rare qualities with which he was endowed, intellectual grasp, spiritual insight, exquisite refinement combined with strength and virility of execution.

His statue of Farragut marked an epoch in the art of sculpture in this country. It was a portrait statue but how far removed from the commonplace effigies which at that period disfigured our public parks. The famous commander was portrayed in his own natural environment, so admirably adjusted to his surroundings that one almost had a consciousness of the swaying deck and the fresh breeze playing about him. Here was a beautiful work of art decorative in the highest sense, sincere in every line.

Not many years later the commission for a statue of Lincoln for Chicago brought him face to face with one of the most difficult problems in modern sculpture. Yet the result proved his capacity for the highest achievement; for his genius gathered up the manifold qualities of the great president's character and fused them into a portrait which, mere bronze as it is, conveys an extraordinary impression of personal power. The Shaw Memorial in which originality of conception is combined with lofty sentiment, the Sherman statue already classed among the few great equestrian statues of the world, and the mysterious figure of inscrutable mien which constitutes the Adams Memorial in Washington are additional evidence of a wealth of artistic gifts rare in any age or country.

In the earlier years of his work he gave much attention to portraiture in low relief, a field in which his masterly skill and refinement of feeling produced effects of the most exquisite character. Aside from his own personal achievement his influence upon the art of his time has been very great. A man of unusually winning personality, he had a vast capacity for work, and a fidelity to his ideals which would not be satisfied with anything short of perfection. Hampered with ill health so that years of labor had to be sacrificed, he yet preserved his sweetness of nature, inimitable sense of humor and generous appreciation of the work of others.

America is fortunate in her heritage of a life which has given to the art of the new world an influence which is incalculable. More than this, we may well believe that, in the words of a fellow artist, "He is destined to take his place somewhere among the few artists whose work transcends time and place and becomes part of the universal human inheritance."



Some Nature Poetry

To most of our readers Spring will have already become a welcome guest by the time this magazine is received, even to those with whom our

"Back'ard springs
Kind o' haggle with their greens an' things."

That spring is here is sufficient justification for the following quotations from three of our best nature poets. The passages selected are familiar, doubtless, to many readers but they well bear endless repetition.

The Grass--From "Poems," By Emily Dickinson

The grass so little has to do,—
A sphere of simple green,
With only butterflies to brood,
And bees to entertain,

And stir all day to pretty tunes
The breezes fetch along,
And hold the sunshine in its lap
And bow to everything;

And thread the dews all night, like pearls,
And make itself so fine,—
A duchess were too common
For such a noticing.

And even when it dies, to pass
In odors so divine,
As lowly spices gone to sleep,
Or amulets of pine.

And then to dwell in sovereign barns,
And dream the days away,—
The grass so little has to do,
I wish I were the hay!

From the "Biglow Papers" of Lowell

I, country-born an' bred, know where to find
Some blooms thet make the season suit the mind,
An' seem to metch the doubtin' bluebird's notes,—
Half-vent'rin' liverworts in furry coats,
Bloodroots, whose rolled-up leaves-ef you oncurl,
Each on 'em's cradle to a baby-pearl,—
But these are jes' Spring's pickets; sure ez sin,
The rebble frosts 'll try to drive 'em in;
For half our May's so awfully like May n't,
'Twould rile a Shaker or an evrige saint;
Though I own up I like our back'ard springs
Thet kind o' haggle with their greens an' things,
An' when you 'most give up, 'uthout more words,
Toss the fields full o' blossoms, leaves, an' birds;
Thet's Northun natur', slow an' apt to doubt,
But when it *doos* git stirred, there's no gin-out!

Fust come the blackbirds clatt'rin' in tall trees.
An' settlin' things in windy Congresses,—
Queer politicians, though, for I'll be skinned
Ef all on 'em don't head aginst the wind.
'Fore long the trees begin to show belief,—
The maple crimsons to a coral reef,
Then saffern swarms swing off from all the willers
So plump they look like yaller catterpillars,
Then gray hossches'nuts leetle hands unfold
Softer'n a baby's be at three days old;
Thet's robin-redbreast's almanick; he knows
Thet arter this ther's only blossom-snows;
So, choosin' out a handy crotch an' spouse,
He goes to plast'rin' his adobe house.
Then seems to come a hitch,—things lag behind,
Till some fine mornin' Spring makes up her mind,
An' ez, when snow-swelled rivers cresh their dams
Heaped-up with ice that dovetails in an' jams,
A leak comes spirtin' thru some pin-hole cleft,
Grows stronger, fercer, tears out right an' left,
Then all the waters bow themselves an' come,
Suddin', in one gret slope o' shedderin' foam,
Jes' so our Spring gits everythin' in tune
An' gives one leap from Aperl into June;
Then all comes crowdin' in; afore you think,
Young oak-leaves mist the side-hill woods with pink
The catbird in the laylock bush is loud;
The orchards turn to heaps o' rosy cloud;
Red-cedars blossom tu, though few folks know it,
An' look all dipt in sunshine like a poet;
The lime-trees pile their solid stacks o' shade
An' drows'ly simmer with the bees' sweet trade;
In ellum-shrouds the flashin' hangbird clings
An' for the summer vy'ge his hammock slings;

All down the loose-walled lanes in archin' bowers
The barb'ry droops its strings o' golden flowers,
Whose shrinkin' hearts the school gals love to try
With pins,—they'll worry yourn so, boys, bimeby!
But I don't love your cat'logue style,—do you?—
Ez if to sell off Natur' by vendoo;
One word with blood in 't's twice ez good ez two;
'Nuff sed, June's bridesman, poet o' the year,
Gladness on wings, the bobolink, is here;
Half-hid in tip-top apple-blooms he swings,
Or climbs aginst the breeze with quiverin' wings,
Or givin' way to 't in mock despair,
Runs down, a brook o' laughter, thru the air.

I ollus feel the sap start in my veins
In Spring, with curus heats an' prickly pains
Thet drive me, when I git a chance, to walk
Off by myself to hev a privit talk
With a queer critter thet can't seem to 'gree
Along o' me like most folks,—Mister Me.
Thar's times when I'm unsoshle ez a stone,
An' sort o' suffercate to be alone,—
I'm crowded jes' to think that folks are nigh,
An' can't bear nothin' closer than the sky;
Now the wind's full ez shifty in the mind
Ez wut it is ou'-doors, ef I ain't blind,
An' sometimes in the fairest sou'west weather,
My innard vane pints east for weeks together,
My natur' gits all goose-flesh, an' my sins
Come drizzlin' on my conscience sharp ez pins;
Wal, et sech times I jes' slip out o' sight
An' take it out in a fair stan'-up fight
With the one cuss I can't lay on the shelf,
The crook'dest stick in all the heap,—Myself.

* * * * * *

From "An Ode in Time of Hesitation," By William Vaughn Moody

* * * * * *

Through street and mall the tides of people go
Heedless; the trees upon the Commons show
No hint of green; but to my listening heart
The still earth doth impart
Assurance of her jubilant emprise,
And it is clear to my long-searching eyes
That love at last has might upon the skies.
The ice is runneled on the little pond;
A tell-tale patter drips from off the trees;
The air is touched with southland spiceries,
As if but yesterday it tossed the frond
Of pendent mosses where the live-oaks grow

Beyond Virginia and the Carolines,
Or had its will among the fruit and vines
Of aromatic isles asleep beyond
Florida and the Gulf of Mexico.

Soon shall the Cape Ann children shout in glee,
Spying the arbutus, spring's dear recluse;
Hill lads at dawn shall hearken the wild goose
Go honking northward over Tennessee;
West from Oswego to Sault Seinte-Marie,
And on to where the Pictured Rocks are hung,
And yonder where, gigantic, wilful, young,
Chicago sitteth at the northwest gates,
With restless violent hands and casual tongue
Moulding her mighty fates,
The Lakes shall robe them in ethereal sheen;
And like a larger sea, the vital green
Of springing wheat shall vastly be outflung
Over Dakota and the prairie states.
My desert people immemorial
On Arizonan mesas shall be done
Dim rites unto the thunder and the sun;
Nor shall the primal gods lack sacrifice
More splendid, when the White Sierras call
Unto the Rockies straightway to arise
And dance before the unveiled ark of the year,
Sounding their windy cedars as for shawms,
Unrolling rivers clear
For flutter of broad phylacteries;
While Shasta signals to Alaskan seas
That watch old sluggish glaciers downward creep
To fling their icebergs thundering from the steep,
And Mariposa through the purple calms
Gazes at far Hawaii crowned with palms
Where East and West are met,—
A rich seal on the ocean's bosom set
To say that East and West are twain,
With different loss and gain:
The Lord hath sundered them; let them be sundered yet.

* * * * * *

William James on International Peace

The following quotations are taken from an address made by William James at the Peace Banquet given in Boston, October 7, 1904, on the closing day of the World's Peace Congress. The entire address will be found in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December, 1904.

I am only a philosopher, and there is only one thing that a philosopher can be relied on to do. You know that the function of statistics has been ingeniously described as being the refutation of

other statistics. Well, a philosopher can always contradict other philosophers. In ancient times philosophers defined man as the rational animal; and philosophers since then have always found much more to say about the rational than about the animal part of the definition. But looked at candidly, reason bears about the same proportion to the rest of human nature that we in this hall bear to the rest of America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Polynesia. Reason is one of the very feeblest of Nature's forces, if you take it at any one spot and moment. It is only in the very long run that its effects become perceptible. Reason assumes to settle things by weighing them against one another without prejudice, partiality, or excitement; but what affairs in the concrete are settled by is and always will be just prejudices, partialities, cupidities, and excitements. Appealing to reason as we do, we are in a sort of a forlorn hope situation, like a small sand-bank in the midst of a hungry sea ready to wash it out of existence. But the sand-banks grow when the conditions favor; and weak as reason is, it has the unique advantage over its antagonists that its activity never lets up and that it presses always in one direction, while men's prejudices vary, their passions ebb and flow, and their excitements are intermittent. Our sand-bank, I absolutely believe, is bound to grow,—bit by bit it will get dyked and break-watered. But sitting as we do in this warm room, with music and lights and the flowing bowl and smiling faces, it is easy to get too sanguine about our task, and since I am called to speak, I feel as if it might not be out of place to say a word about the strength of our enemy.

* * * * * *

Not only men born to be soldiers, but non-combatants by trade and nature, historians in their studies, and clergymen in their pulpits, have been war's idealizers. They have talked of war as of God's court of justice. And, indeed, if we think how many things besides the frontiers of states the wars of history have decided, we must feel some respectful awe, in spite of all the horrors.

* * * * * *

The blessings we actually enjoy, such as they are, have grown up in the shadow of the wars of antiquity. The various ideals were backed by fighting wills, and where neither would give way, the God of battles had to be the arbiter. A shallow view, this, truly; for who can say what might have prevailed if man had ever been a reasoning and not a fighting animal? Like dead men, dead causes tell no tales, and the ideals that went under in the past, along with all the tribes that represented them, find today no recorder, no explainer, no defender.

But apart from theoretic defenders, and apart from every soldierly individual straining at the leash, and clamoring for opportunity, war has an omnipotent support in the form of our imagination. Man lives *by* habits, indeed, but what he lives *for* is thrills and excitements. The only relief from Habit's tediousness is periodical excitement. From time immemorial wars have been, especially for non-combatants, the supremely thrilling excitement. Heavy and dragging at its end, at its outset every war means an explosion of imaginative energy. The dams of routine burst, and boundless prospects open. The remotest spectators share the fascination.

We do ill, I fancy, to talk much of universal peace or of a general disarmament. We must go in for preventive medicine, not for radical cure. We must cheat our foe, politically circumvent his action, not try to change his nature. In one respect war is like love, though in no other. Both leave us intervals of rest; and in the intervals life goes on perfectly well without them, though the imagination still dallies with their possibility. Equally insane when once aroused and under headway, whether they shall be aroused or not depends on accidental circumstances. How are old maids and old bachelors made? Not by deliberate vows of celibacy, but sliding on from year to year with no sufficient matrimonial provocation. So of the nations with their wars. Let the general possibility of war be left open, in Heaven's name, for the imagination to dally with. Let the soldiers dream of killing, as the old maids dream of marrying. But organize in every conceivable way the practical machinery for making each successive chance of war abortive. Put peace-men in power; educate the editors and statesmen to responsibility;—how beautifully did their trained responsibility in England make the Venezuela incident abortive! Seize every pretext, however small, for arbitration methods, and multiply the precedents; foster rival excitements and invent new outlets for heroic energy; and from one generation to another, the chances are that irritations will grow less acute and states of strain less dangerous among the nations. Armies and navies will continue, of course, and will fire the minds of populations with the potentialities of greatness. But their officers will find that somehow or other, with no deliberate intention on any one's part, each successive "incident" has managed to evaporate and to lead nowhere, and that the thought of what might have been remains their only consolation.

Tolstoy's Reply to the Tzar

Tolstoy's letter, in response to the Tzar's invitation, through a communication made by his nephew, the Grand Duke Constantin, that the aged Count become reconciled to the Russian Greek Church, from which he was excommunicated, is one of the finest bits of work in behalf of liberty, humanity and peace, which has been performed in many a year. It is a model of sincerity, loyalty to conviction, directness, simplicity and moral force. It needs no exposition and is as follows:

"*Your Majesty*: A few more days, weeks or years and I am gone. Some days or decades more and Your Majesty will follow my example. That is the eternal law of nature. But before that occurs I desire to direct these lines to you as the ruler of the Russian people.

"I wish you could follow and realize the words and example of Christ: 'Whoso will be master shall be a servant of the others.' To rule a people or an empire does not mean to govern them by force and violence, but to serve them with wisdom and love, and execute the highest ideals for the benefit of the ruled.

"Neither parliament nor constitutional government makes a nation happy, great or advanced, but the ideals for which they strive

and the freedom necessary to obtain those ideals. If you will be a ruler as described and realized by Christ, your first duty is to build your sovereignty upon the love of peace, liberty and brotherhood. Build your empire upon the religion of humanity and peace, and there will be not necessary either prisons or enormous military expenses. Give freedom to every man to think, worship or speak as he likes, and they will learn to rule themselves with love and wisdom. Therefore, I beg to suggest to Your Majesty these rules for ruling:

"1. To follow the example of Christ and become a servant of the nation.

"2. Abolish the army of violence and establish an army of peace and love.

"3. Give the largest freedom to all the individuals of our country to act as they think right and proper.

"4. Renounce all the wealth and luxury, abolish all titles and particular privileges, and proclaim the religion of Christ and humanity as the fundamental constitution of our empire.

"Having done this, you will become one of the greatest rulers of the present time and your name will be blessed and worshipped by millions.

Very respectfully submitted,

"Leo Tolstoy."

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THE TENNYSON CLASS.

Many members of the Class of 1908 are looking forward with bright anticipations to their coming graduation at Chautauqua. Alumni Hall, the class headquarters, will be the center of attraction and the cozy class room which is situated on the right hand side of the second floor at the rear, the "sunset corner," will be recognized by its portraits of Tennyson and its artistic "red rose" panel on the door. The classes of 1892 and 1900 share the room with 1908. They are good neighbors and there will be many pleasant interchanges of courtesies. Alumni Hall looks across the park, in the center of which is the '82 Decennial fountain, to the Hall of Philosophy where Round Tables are held and also the impressive exercises of Recognition Day. At scores of other Chautauquas, also, members of the class will find a cordial welcome, and an acquaintance with Tennyson's "Ulysses" will serve as a passport to good fellowship among members of 1908 who meet at these centers for the first time.

There will be many 1908's whose summer outings will not include a Chautauqua but their diplomas will find them out, and recognize their class loyalty. It may be well to remind Chautauquans that graduation does not neces-

sarily imply filling out review papers. These are the joy of the enthusiast who is working for the pleasure of testing his powers, and incidentally winning seals for his diploma. But the diploma may be honorably won by the simple reading of the prescribed books and magazine articles, and reporting these to the office at Chautauqua.

IMPORTANT NOTICE TO THE CLASS OF 1908.

Each member of the class should receive by the first of June a special circular sent out by the office at Chautauqua entitled "Report Blank and Final Address to the Graduating Class." This blank provides spaces on which each member can report the four years' reading and the seals, if any, for which he has made the required returns. The blank also contains the dates of Recognition Days at all the various Chautauquas with the time limit for sending in reports, and other items of interest to graduates. Any member who fails to receive this blank by June 1 should notify the office at Chautauqua, New York.

CHAUTAUQUA IN KOREA.

In last month's Round Table an outline map indicated some centers of the C. L. S. C. in China, and Korea. The following letter from our Korean member, who, with her husband, belongs to the Class of 1910, shows how the C. L. S. C. course contributed to the varied experiences of a Korean missionary's vacation.

"Ever since I came to Korea as a bride, my husband and I planned to do some systematic reading together. It is so easy for missionaries to get into the ruts and we wanted something outside the usual line of our work to keep us awake. Last year we decided on the Chautauqua Reading Course and ordered books and magazine. . . . Mr. Moore's work keeps him itinerating in the country most of the time, and the occasional trips home are always filled with work and preparation for the next trip. But during the winter we did find time for two delightful evenings with 'Rational Living.' . . . Every month THE CHAUTAUQUAN came to us. 'Highways and Byways' kept us in touch with the doings in the homeland which seems so far away. Of course the news was a month old but we have become accustomed to that so we do not mind and only grumble when mails are delayed and two or three more weeks are added to the time of waiting. The other pages

were not read, but the magazines were put away carefully to be taken with us on our vacation.

"Pyeng Yang is on the Great East River which reaches far up into the mountains. One of our early missionaries conceived the idea of using the river, the mountains, and the long, narrow, shallow boats used by the natives, for our vacation. So we improve our opportunities in the month of August when, being the time of floods and the boat owners having no use for their boats for carrying loads up or down the river, they may be had at a low rent, and the five boatmen for little more than their food and shoes. The boats are about sixty feet long, and ten feet wide in the center. A house frame, usually 20x10 feet is made and placed over the center of the boat, leaving space at either end of the boat for the boatmen. Thatch roofs, solid floors, and canvas curtains for sides, when needed, are provided and the house is finished. A tiny kitchen is partitioned off at the rear and the remainder of the house is sitting room, dining room, or bed room according as the need may require, being easily transformed by means of the camp furniture every missionary has for his country trips.

"When we packed our books for our vacation trip, the Chautauqua magazines and books were not forgotten, and between mountain climbing and swimming we really had time to read quite a little, though there is still enough left for another summer.

"Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Dr. King helped us have a perfect rest by giving us a complete change from every day thoughts, and we came home ready for the duties of another year.

"MRS. J. Z. MOORE."

A REVIEW OF AMERICAN PAINTING.

Many of our readers will find it an advantage to detach the half dozen pages in the back of this Round Table devoted to a summary of American Painting and bind them separately in leaflet form. One of the delights of the study of art is the constant enlarging of one's opportunities for making the acquaintance of pictures. Picture galleries and art stores are becoming more widely distributed and exhibitions of works by American artists accessible to ever increasing numbers of people. To have for reference a summary of the important names and tendencies in American painting will, it is hoped, help students to use their opportunities to the best advantage.

TO THE CLASS OF 1898: "THE LANIERS."

The decennial exercises of the class will be held at Chautauqua, New York, in August, 1908. The exact date will be announced later. It will be not far from Recognition Day.

The Church at Pyeng Yang, the largest in Korea, seating 1,800.

The class, which is named for the two poets, Mr. Clifford Lanier and his brother, the late Mr. Sidney Lanier, will have the pleasure of welcoming Mr. Clifford Lanier who will take part in the decennial exercises. A Round Robin letter is in circulation, but it may fail to reach some members whose addresses have changed, or are not known. It is therefore desired that all members of the class communicate at once with Mrs. R. P. Hopper, 98 Annette St., West, Toronto Junction, Canada, telling something of their daily experiences, that they may be better known by their classmates. These items will be woven into a Class Chronicle to be read at the Decennial Exercises, and preserved among the Class archives.

A Chautauqua reader in Pforzheim, Germany, reports his somewhat scattering method of reading the course makes it hardly possible for him to claim a diploma but that he is a firm friend of Chautauqua and is trying to spread the C. L. S. C. idea in Germany. "In Europe," he writes, "it means sowing seeds plentifully, overcoming many difficulties, and reaping very slowly; some day we shall reap."

A Missionary Residence in Pyeng Yang, Korea.

Alumni Hall, C. L. S. C. Headquarters at Chautauqua.

Suggestions from a Brooklyn 1911: For class emblem, The Mignonette. For Class Motto: "Let us then be up and doing." Comments from other members of the class are in order.

A 1911 from Kentucky is starting out with the same sort of enthusiasm which characterized the Chautauqua readers of the early years when the novelty of the idea made an especially strong appeal. She says: "I write to say that I began the reading and study of the four books and eight magazines December first, and have completed the Brief and White seal memoranda of one hundred questions in three and one-half months, a great achievement for one so old and rusty as myself. I am proud of it. Of course they are open for correction and criticism, yet I have made a great endeavor to have them correct, by indefatigable work, studying every afternoon and night. I am boarding in the country where I have not had any advantage of a single book, but a small dictionary for reference. . . . I have enjoyed Miss Spencer's 'American Painting' so much."

For uncounted Chautauqua readers the end of the four years' course has literally been a "commencement." This is illustrated by a member from Springport, Michigan, who graduating from the C. L. S. C. in 1885 has had the books and CHAUTAUQUAN, with a few intervals, throughout these twenty-three years.

A member of the class of '91 from New York City in sending her annual fee for the year 1907-8, says: "Pardon my neglect in sending my annual fee for 1908. As this is the first time in twenty years, I feel sure you will."

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE.

FIRST WEEK.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us," Chapter XVI, Part 2: "Some Signs of Hope." "American Painting," Chapter IX: "Modern Landscape Painting."

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLOSING PROGRAM OF THE YEAR.

Circles which are dramatically inclined will not go far astray if they present one of Howell's well-known farces. The action of these is simple and the number of characters not too numerous to make them available for a circle of moderate size. The last circle report (Carthage, Mo.) in the Round Table this month suggests a plan for an exhibition of silhouttes which may be made quite extensive and very interesting as a review of the year's authors.

An exhibition of American paintings through reproductions might be made an interesting and important contribution by the Circle to the pleasure and education of the community. A centrally located room in the Y. M. C. A. or Public Library or elsewhere could be secured where the pictures might be on exhibition for a week. A few extra copies of THE CHAUTAUQUAN would make it possible to mount all of the pictures separately. If the room has an unattractive wall, some simple frames could be made and covered with plain green ingrain paper which makes an attractive background, and on these panels the pictures could be grouped. They should be arranged chronologically in the Colonial period and later, in their natural divisions of historical, figure, portrait, landscape and mural painting. Very considerable additions can be made to the pictures by looking up some of the magazines listed in the bibliography. These may possibly be secured at a low rate by correspondence with some old book store in a neighboring city or a notice in a local paper may put the Circle in possession of many treasures in the way of supplementary illustrations. The "Masters in Art" Monographs, 20 cents each (Bates and Guild, Boston),

on Copley and Stuart and on Washington contain a large number of admirable pictures. It is quite possible that in many towns the exhibition could be supplemented by original works of American art which might be loaned for the occasion by private families or by dealers. In this way, the public would have a chance not only to study the originals but to see them in their historic connection. Arrangements might be made with some art student or teacher to give talks on the pictures at a given hour each day, pointing out the significant features in the development of American Art. If the Circle thought wise, a small fee might be charged and the proceeds used to purchase art reproductions for the public library.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US." CHAPTER XVI. PART II.

1. What are some of the questions that confront us in our quest for signs of progress? 2. What early opinions were expressed regarding the Press in the United States? 3. What comparison may be made between our Weeklies and Monthlies and the Daily press? 4. How have the Dailies been influenced by these periodicals? 5. What example is given of the low estate of the Press in 1812? 6. How does our history illustrate the close connection between politics and business? 7. Is there any indication of progress in this direction? If so, what? 8. What low state of the public conscience is indicated by records of our prisons in the early nineteenth century? 9. How were "perquisites" regarded in official life? 10. Illustrate the changed attitude toward bribery. 11. How does the official corruption following the Civil War compare with that of our early political history? 12. What corrupt business conditions are revealed by the Senate records of New York State? 13. How is this same spirit shown in other states? 14. How does our attitude toward tuberculosis illustrate progress? 15. How are we showing a new attitude toward monopoly? 16. What excuse does it offer for its lawlessness? 17. For what achievements does it deserve credit? 18. What danger is there in our attitude toward "the rich?" 19. What are some of the principles which must rule in the twentieth century? 20. What great truth has come home to the people of the Pacific Coast? 21. With what pertinent advice does our author close his series of studies?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who are the editors respectively of *The World's Work, The Review of Reviews, The American Magazine, Collier's,* and *The Outlook?* 2. How many daily papers are published in each of the following cities: New York, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis, Seattle, Baltimore, and New Orleans? 3. How many religious Weeklies are published in this country? 4. How many so-called socialistic publications are produced in this country?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON AMERICAN PAINTING.

1. What were the general characteristics of the "Hudson River School?" 2. How were art ideals in this country influenced by Hunt and La Farge? 3. What men held a corresponding position in relation to landscape? 4. What changes in style are

observable in the work of Inness? 5. How was he influenced by his European experience? 6. What are his most marked characteristics? What his limitations? 7. In what respect was his work great? 8. Contrast the work of Wyant with that of Inness. 9. What qualities gave to Homer D. Martin deservedly high rank? 10. Contrast the old style fashion of painting trees with the newer methods employed. 11. What does the painter mean by "modeling" in nature? 12. How does a modern painter heighten his effects by a study of "values?" 13. What various aspects of landscape painting are made the subject of study by different artists? 14. What qualities give to the work of Ranger a peculiar distinction? 15. What artistic training had Dwight W. Tryon? 16. What are the characteristics of his paintings? 17. What are some of the other names connected with this group of artists? 18. What criticism may be made of "Spring" by Bolton Jones? 19. What are the distinctive features of Impressionism? 20. What examples of it are here discussed. 21. Discuss some of the respective merits of Redfield, Schofield, and Dougherty. 22. What striking developments have been shown in the work of Mr. Charles Francis Browne?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READING.

1. A famous Italian family of the fifteenth century among the members of which were Pope Alexander VI, his son Cesare Borgia created cardinal in 1492 and his daughter Lucrezia Borgia Duchess of Ferrara, a woman of great beauty and ability. 2. The New York Evening *Post*. 3. Editor of *World's Work* since 1900. Member of the firm of Doubleday Page &. Co.; born Cary, N. C., 1855, graduate of Randolph-Macon College, Va., and Johns Hopkins University, editor *Forum* 1890-5. *Atlantic Monthly* 1896-9. 4. Establishing an attitude toward China which preserved the open door, and in the Russo-Japanese War assured the integrity of that nation.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

A South Dakota member seemed to be the center of an inquiring group as Pendragon prepared to call the roll of the Round Table. "It's my portfolio which is exciting this commotion," explained the delegate. "And if you like, I will show it to the others. I wanted very much to get acquainted with modern American artists and so I tried working out a simple plan. My notion is that one learns a good deal from contrasts so I'm planning to keep two artists on hand all the time whose work can be compared. Just at present they are Sargent and Alexander. I picked up a number of pictures of each artist in various ways. I live in the country and have no library, so I first inquired of all my neighbors for the magazines mentioned in THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S bibliography and got a few in this way—though you'd be surprised to see how few magazines many country families have. Then I wrote to the public library in a

nearby city and asked for the name of an old book dealer. Through him I secured some of the magazines I wanted and I sent to the publishers for the rest. Altogether I spent a dollar and a half and I have a fine outlay. Then I got my oldest boy to make me two bulletin boards out of pine stained a soft brown shade and finished with a narrow strip of molding around the edge. He sand-papered and rubbed down the board till it really looks quite ornamental. I selected the two spots in my house where I spend a good deal of time—the wall on one side of my kitchen opposite which I stand to wipe dishes and another well lighted corner of the living room which I face every time I drop down into the big rocker, and here I hung up my boards. With thumb tacks I mounted the Alexanders on the living room board and the Sargents in the kitchen. The Sargents have a more militant air and seem to keep me up to my best efforts. The Alexanders have a deliciously luxurious quality which fits in with my moments of rest. The children look at the pictures a great deal and discuss their favorites with enthusiasm and are looking forward to the time when they can see an original. They call the portrait of little Beatrice Goelet 'Baby Sister' and Alexander's Autumn 'the floating lady.' Now I'm working away at odd minutes on a landscape series as you will see from these in my portfolio and I shall have 'Rocky Mountain' painters in one room and Impressionists in another. You can't think what an interesting way it is to study pictures."

"Do you remember," said Pendragon, "what Agassiz said to his teachers? 'Train your pupils to be observers, and have them provided with the specimens about which you speak.' Some day these South Dakota boys and girls will go to a big picture gallery. It would be worth a good deal to see them catch their first glimpse of Sargents and Alexanders."

"The delegate's allusion to the scarcity of literature in the country reminds me," said a member from the Deerpark Circle of Port Jervis, New York, "of the good time we had this spring getting together a collection of books and magazines for the soldiers at a very lonely army post. It doesn't seem quite fair to enjoy all these opportunities and not give some one else a chance. I keep thinking of that quotation in Mr. Grabo's article on the poet Moody—

"Who has given to me this sweet
And given my brother dust to eat
And when will his wage come in?"

This winter we have twenty members and most interesting and profitable meetings and excellent attendance under all sorts of difficulties. 'Races and Immigrants' engaged most of our attention up to January 1st and one of the best things we have had was a re-

view of 'Aliens or Americans' by the pastor of one of our churches, taking part of the time for several meetings. Another very helpful feature is free discussion on all subjects. We have few formal papers, aiming rather to set ourselves thinking and talking on the most important points. We had a live debate on the Chinese Exclusion Act, and are planning for another this month on Trades-Unionism. We are also to have a review of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' by our Free Librarian. We find the course of study so interesting, so informing, so formative, that nothing would induce us to give it up."

"We've tried rather a novel plan this year, at least it is for us," said the Clyde, New York, delegate. "In November our local Circle of twenty-five members purchased, as individuals, the thirteen books that were to be studied in 'Provincial Types' and beginning on the 13th of that month, we began circulating them among the members. We purchased enough extra books from the suggested list in the outline to make one for each family and so changed the books in regular order each week. The time was short for reading the book in addition to our regular required reading but the members have made an effort to read as many as possible. We found the plan very satisfactory and hope to enjoy our study of the required book, 'Provincial Types in American Fiction,' much more because all have had the opportunity to read so many of the books that will be discussed."

"You may consider us rather isolated," commented the delegate from Meeker, Colorado, "when I tell you that we are in a cattle country forty-five miles from a railroad and reached by daily stage, but we have a grade school and a county high school with ten teachers. In the hunting season, this region is quite a center for tourists. Our Circle of twenty flourishes. It was started by a teacher and perhaps that is the reason we use quite largely the 'quiz' method. At all events, it seems to fit our case, but as 1911's we are of course, open to new ideas."

"There seems to be great unanimity of sentiment on the point that we are 'a very busy people,'" laughed Pendragon, as he ran through a number of very terse reports. "These may fitly be called 'witty,' I think, if brevity is the soul of wit, but from an artistic point of view they lack 'color.' Nevertheless, we welcome and congratulate the Huntsville, Alabama, Circle upon its fine membership of thirty, the Beatrice, Nebraska Chautauquans who are enjoying the reading and have an average attendance of ten, and the time-honored Circle of Scranton, Pennsylvania, with an attendance of

twenty-five. The members of the Circle at Centerville, Tennessee, seem to have no chance, as yet, to investigate a foreign quarter for they have none. Four years from now I fancy that they, like many another southern town, will find some new elements in the population. Centerville has one thousand inhabitants and mining phosphate is its chief industry. They have, as yet, no public library, but the seventeen members of the Chautauqua Circle seem to have unlimited enthusiasm and of course, with their convictions, it is only a question of time when they will start a library."

"May I make a suggestion to some of these younger readers," queried a member of the class of '89. "In our class long years ago we had a very clever little book called 'How to Judge of a Picture,' by John C. Van Dyke. Dr. Van Dyke has since become famous and written many fine books. I think his 'Art for Art's Sake' now covers much of the material in the little volume which I've mentioned, and you can find it in your own town libraries, but I am thinking of the many communities where there are C. L. S. C. members who belong to the four classes of '89 to '92 who doubtless have this little book in their private libraries and would be glad to lend it. It discusses pictures in most helpful fashion, explaining art terms and applying them to well-known pictures."

"I see Dr. Van Dyke has a new book," commented Pendragon. "It is called, 'Studies in Pictures: An Introduction to the Famous Galleries,' and from a casual glance at it I should say it would be a valuable book for any of you to own. Dr. Van Dyke is an able critic and a teacher of more than ordinary skill."

"Our Circle at Bowling Green, Ohio, would like to report," remarked its secretary. "My Chautauqua experience covers many long years, for I belong to the class of '87, but there is always something fresh in the work. We have ten members, most of them 1910's. Our town of 5,000 is in the Black Swamp District of Ohio. It has been a great oil region and contains very few foreigners, but we have studied the subject of the immigrant with very deep interest; in fact our weekly meetings are so absorbing that the entire afternoon slips away before we know it. We stepped over our usual bounds on Longfellow's Birthday and had an evening celebration, inviting our husbands and brothers and friends generally. Music and quotations, recitations and some of Longfellow's poems with synopses of 'Hiawatha' and 'Miles Standish' refreshed our memories and interested both the children and the grown-ups. Many of our boys and girls are learning to look to Chautauqua for guidance and it's a good habit for them to cultivate."

"I have tried an experiment as the result of my interest in Races and Immigrants," said a member from Russelville, Alabama. "I wrote a little play bringing in the various immigrants to be welcomed by Uncle Sam and Miss Columbia with provision for introducing patriotic songs, and it is to be presented by the high school students at the close of the year. It's a good thing to have the young people establish firmly a friendly attitude toward foreigners. We have many Italians here who work in the mining plants. There are four of these plants which mine iron ore on the surface, so we already have the immigrant problem with us, and this old town has seen a good deal of American history. Some of the gravestones in the cemetery record the ages of people who were born before the middle of the eighteenth century. I've enjoyed the whole course immensely. If only a little of Miss Addams' 'Newer Ideals of Peace' could have been put into public sentiment before our civil war, how much our country might have gained from the absence of that tragedy."

"THE CHAUTAUQUAN has been most useful to me in various ways," remarked a New York member, Mrs. Fisk. "I am chairman of the Literary Committee for the City Federation of Women's Clubs representing about thirty-five thousand women. I have found much help in the magazine and our committee has acted upon its suggestions. As chairman of the Municipal League for the Bronx I found particularly valuable the articles in the Civic number last summer. We used the material as the basis of a public meeting held early in the fall. Our 'Book and Thimble Club' have met at the homes of members for about fifteen years. For the last five years I have been their president, and as many of the ladies do not have time for really good study, I make the most interesting program possible from the Chautauqua books and magazines. It is surprising how much one can get from them and the suggestions for programs in the magazines. As our name indicates, any one wishing to do so can bring her sewing, as it is quite informal, but really delightful in its spontaneity. We had a 'Poe' afternoon recently and one of our members surprised us by bringing a carved ivory puzzle that Edgar Allan Poe had given her when they lived side by side and were young friends. We found and talked with several people who knew him well and had many interesting incidents to recount. All had visited the cottage at Fordham where 'The Raven' was written. We have had a very pleasant winter's work and if I am elected president again, I shall certainly hope to have the pleasure of continuing with your most excellent course."

The Niagara Falls delegate next asked permission to report, "if it won't be overdoing New York State," she said. "But as we are

four hundred miles away from New York City and close to Canada, our atmosphere is quite different. The 'Niagaras' are an enthusiastic circle of thirty members. 'Races and Immigrants' stimulated a lively interest among our members and we have had many brief reports on the factories in our cities and on the different county and state institutions. We have acted upon program suggestions and made use of occasional book reviews of important books. Two very lively debates on the Chinese Exclusion Act and on the Labor Union Movement served to clear up our ideas on these subjects in great measure. As a basis for social diversion we celebrated St. Valentine's and St. Patrick's days and our high school principal gave a most illuminating talk on industrial training as carried out in our city schools."

Brief reports from various parts of the country showed the influences at work in different types of community. Aberdeen, Mississippi, reported a circle of thirty-two with increasing interest. A letter was read from a lone reader in Baltimore, who, calling himself a 'Wheel-chair invalid, secretary-contractor,' proved to be also secretary of the American branch of the Shut-In-Society. He alluded to the great profit found in his first year's work as a member of the class of 1910. "I have enjoyed the English year, oh! so much; but you don't know how much that really is. Most of my books I have read three or four times and on Shakespeare I studied hard and did considerable writing."

The Wallingford, Connecticut, Circle suffered from stormy nights early in the year, and various slips prevented the realization of all of its ambitions. The town is an interesting one for the study of the immigrant, as many factories flourish and the population seems to come from all the ends of the earth. Jeffersonville, Indiana, a town without immigrants, but with quite a negro population, has an enthusiastic circle of teachers and other likewise busy people. The circle has a good library which was well utilized in the study of immigration and the members added to and tested as well their knowledge of American poets. Circles at Fostoria, Ohio, and at Buckingham, Pa., working hard and developing individual responsibility among their members, showed that they have the essential qualities of permanency. A Benton Harbor, Michigan, member reported great interest in their study of the immigrant: "We had the privilege," she said, "of hearing from a missionary who is working among the Lithuanians and Poles in the Pennsylvania mines, and later the Congregational minister gave us a full account of his recent visit to Hampton Institute showing us the negro educated and capable. My C. L. S. C. books are prov-

ing so helpful in my boy's high school work. (A Sophomore this year, he calls often for books of the English and of the Greek and Italian years.) For the first time in my nearly five years of study I am making time to fill out the memoranda, finding it a great help. I hope to keep up the Chautauqua work many years as I find that, not being able to read everything, the Chautauqua course keeps me in touch with the world, current events and social problems generally."

"The town of Creston, Iowa, offers an interesting field for study," said Pendragon as he noted the facts given in a written report. "It is a railroad center and has few immigrants except those of the second generation. Perhaps sometime the circle may make a study of these and see how their occupations compare with those of their parents. It would be an interesting analysis and a good subject to present at a Round Table at the local Chautauqua Assembly, for these Creston Chautauquans render very valuable assistance to their assembly and the town supports several flourishing circles.

"Just here we must have a report from the Carthage, Missouri, Chautauqua Social Union, a fine example of how the C. L. S. C. spirit can be fostered in a community." "Carthage also is an assembly town," responded the speaker, "the circles and assembly reacting upon each other to their mutual profit. Our union is composed of four circles, the Athenæum, the Piatts, the Local, and the Ianthe-Vincent Circles. With our members and guests we had an attendance of about one hundred and fifty at our annual reunion which was held in Odd Fellows hall. Our program was composed of tableaux, pictures, and pantomimes from the year's work, and was introduced by one of our members, Mrs. Taafe, who explained to the audience that the mental strain of thinking deep thoughts all winter long was to be relieved by a program, quite evidently one of relaxation! The Athenæum Circle then presented a charming picture of a Puritan Evening at Home, very complete in stage setting and costume. The Local Circle followed with 'Ichabod and Katrina' and a Dutch quilting bee, while two Revolutionary War scenes representing a war time tea-party and 'The First Flag' were the contribution of the Piatt Circle. The members had not spared their own or their friend's resources in the way of quaint costumes, old furniture, etc., while colored lights, burned at suitable points, heightened the effect.

"An especially novel feature of the entertainment was the showing of silhouttes of famous English and American authors. These were thrown upon a screen accompanied by suitable descriptive readings and at the close, when it was announced that some

prominent American women of today would also be shown in similar fashion, the ladies of the Ianthe-Vincent Circle mirthfully formed in procession and their profiles appeared upon the curtain. The mellow strains of an orchestra furnished an accompaniment for the tableaux and a social hour gave opportunity for many breezy comments by our friends upon the dramatic qualities displayed by the members of the Union."

"We have tried to make local applications of our studies as far as possible," said a Lexington, Kentucky, delegate. "At one of our first meetings this year we had a paper on 'What Kentucky is doing in the World of Art Today,' and later when we were considering the various nationalities in this country, we studied the negro situation in our own city. The article on Music in the March CHAUTAUQUAN reminds me that we have never told you of our closing meeting for last year when we had a most charming musical program of songs from Shakespeare. At its close we held a reception to our guests of whom nearly a hundred were present. You may like to look over this list of the songs rendered:

PART I.

Songs possibly sung in the original performance.
Take, O Take those Lips Away (Measure for Measure). Wilson.
It Was a Lover and His Lass (As You Like It). De Koven.

PART II.

Settings composed since Shakespeare's time to the middle of the 19th century:
Hark, Hark the Lark (Cymbeline). Schubert.
Who is Sylvia? (The Two Gentlemen of Verona). Schubert.
If Music be the Food of Love, Sing On (Twelfth Night). Clifton.
Over Hill, Over Dale (Midsummer Night's Dream). Cook.
Where the Bee Sucks (The Tempest). Humphrey.

PART III.

Recent Settings:
Blow, Blow, Thou Winter Wind (King Lear). Halley.
O Mistress Mine (Twelfth Night). De Koven.
Orpheus With His Lute (Henry the Eighth). Sullivan.

"I must read you this letter from a member of the class of 1910," said Pendragon. "People are continually waking up to the fact that the Chautauqua scheme is not merely one for literary entertainment but that it has a definite educational aim back of it:

"'I learned first of Chautauqua last summer from a friend, and it is a great discovery for me. I am ambitious for an education, and although I have attended college I have never had the opportunity to graduate. I have had delight in every book of the English Year. Each was full of something necessary to me. My enthusiasm for the coming three years cannot be measured, and, though I am what is called a "lone reader," it is my intention to be at Chautauqua in 1910 to graduate with my class.'

"A Philadelphia business man describes his sentiments in this way:

"'Last evening I happened to come across several back numbers of your excellent magazine and have been so delighted with it that I couldn't rest until I had made out the enclosed check. It is just what I have been looking for.'

"And the following point of view from one of our individual readers in Boston may awaken some dissent among certain members who even when well on toward the eighties have shown much ardor in the pursuit of diplomas and seals:

"'Of course diplomas and seals and the rest of it does not excite the ambition of a woman "three score years and ten" plus ———, but I shall like the systematic guidance of my reading.'

"I notice," he added, "allusions in these newspaper clippings to meetings of the Circles of Westerville, Ohio, Macomb, Illinois, The Ruskin of Newark, New Jersey, Centerville, Tennessee, Marion, Iowa, West Pittston, Pennsylvania, Mishawaka, Indiana, Rowley, Massachusetts, and elsewhere. These are typical circles, a few out of the great number that show how every part of the country is feeling the influence of the American Year. The Worthington Circle of Springfield, Ohio, reported that as a side light on the American Year they were making imaginary trips to parts of the country where there were striking natural features. They had explored Alaskan glaciers, made a trip down the Grand Canon, investigated the Bad Lands and cruised along the rivers of the Everglades."

Some city circles next claimed the privilege of giving their experiences. Rochester, New York, among the first: "Our city as most of you know is largely devoted to manufacturing," said the secretary, Mr. Baetzel. "It is also the market for the farm lands of this vicinity and naturally we have many foreigners. We've not mapped out our city as suggested but have discussed in a general way the character of the sections where the foreigners are settled noting the habits, thrift, prosperity, crime, etc., of these regions and the work done by the Social Settlements, churches, public night schools and the Playground League. For the regular work in the circle we take the lessons laid out in the Outline, and go over the questions. These bring out a great deal of discussion and awaken much interest and enthusiasm among our thirty-five members. We also bring in clippings from papers and magazines on topics that relate to the lesson. We meet in the Y. M. C. A. and usually have several visitors."

"As our town of Avon is not far from Rochester, though we are not a city, I may perhaps mention our circle," said the secretary. "Avon has about two thousand people and is a railroad town. We

have about twenty members at our meetings, two of whom are early graduates of the C. L. S. C. who have read every year since. You can imagine that they are like valuable books of reference to us! Our membership is varied, four high school teachers, one minister, one farmer, and five business men, so we come at our studies from quite different points of view. We have made no individual map studies, but a large map, the result of our president's skill, hangs on the wall for study and reference. We vary the program and have very interesting and profitable meetings."

REFERENCE OUTLINE OF AMERICAN PAINTING.

1. Portrait Painting in the Colonies:

The Art of America originally an imported art influenced in the beginning and throughout by the art of Europe yet evolving in its later years qualities expressive of its own nationality.

John Smybert, a Scotch painter, invited to become professor of Fine Arts in Dean Berkeley's proposed American University. Painted the "Family of Dean Berkeley" at Whitehall, Newport, in 1731. Remained in this country after the collapse of Dean Berkeley's plans and left admirable portraits of his contemporaries.

Some Later Artists: Jeremiah Theus painted in the Carolinas a number of portraits in a style somewhat similar to Copley's; Jonathan B. Blackburn in New England portraits of some of the most distinguished people of his day. *Matthew Pratt* of Philadelphia, whose uncle James Claypole was possibly America's first native artist, painted the earliest authentic portraits of Franklin and of Benjamin West. His famous picture of "The American School," West's London Studio, shows portraits of West, of the artist and of others. *Robert Feke,* ran away to sea, was carried off to Spain, and may have studied the work of the Spanish masters. Painted a portrait of James Bowdoin, founder of Bowdoin College.

Benjamin West and *John Singleton Copley* are the names of greatest distinction in our colonial art. West's influence, largely felt through his teaching in London, belongs especially to the Revolutionary period. Copley, born in Boston, 1737, of Irish parents. His stepfather, Peter Pelham, Boston's earliest engraver, fostered his early artistic tastes. His portraits of men and women of colonial times leave an impression of great sincerity and give distinction to his art. Individual characteristics were painted with astonishing truth. His work in London after he was forty resulted in improved technique and many admirable canvases. But his fame was firmly established here before he had the experience of European teaching or travel.

2. The Period of the Revolution:

New conditions. The fame of Washington and the interest aroused by the Revolution brought a number of foreign artists to America. Portraiture flourished; miniature painting prominent.

Ralph Earl (1751-1801). A Connecticut painter whose por-

traits and family groups possess a quaint dignity, very attractive. *Henry Bembridge,* a Philadelphia contemporary, the second American painter to study in Rome. Many of his portraits to be found in the South. *John Ramage,* an Irish gentleman and a notable miniaturist, depicted most of New York's belles, beaux, and military heroes, including Washington.

Benjamin West (1738), during his fifty-five years in England (1765-1820) exerted an important influence upon the art life of America. Two generations of painters owe much to his teaching, his advice, and generous help. One of the founders of the English Royal Academy. Work chiefly religious and historical. Huge canvases revolutionized historical painting by abandoning classical conventions; pictures largely conceived but not always great in execution.

Charles Wilson Peale, pupil of Copley, in 1772 painted Washington's portrait—the first of a long series. Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts founded in 1805 largely the result of his efforts. *Du Simitiere* (a Swiss) made a military profile of Washington which was engraved and published with other portraits of distinguished Americans in London in 1783. *James Sharpless* painted portraits of General and Mrs. Washington and an exquisite picture of Nellie Custis in her bridal gown. *St. Memin,* a Frenchman, came to this country when twenty-five. The Corcoran Gallery contains some eight hundred of his engravings of eminent Americans. His "physionotrace" sketch was the last portrait of Washington taken from life.

Gilbert Stuart, born at Newport in 1755 of Scotch descent. Produced a number of portraits before he entered West's London studio at twenty. An admirer of Copley, the sincerity of whose work appealed strongly to him. In 1794 at Germantown, painted Washington for the first time; later two other portraits—the famous "Athenæum" among them.

3. The Years of Preliminary Growth—1800-1850:

At the opening of century, Copley and West in London, Matthew Pratt and C. W. Peale in Philadelphia, Gilbert Stuart in his prime, painting in Boston. A new generation studying under West and some of them already in America.

Charles Fraser, Benjamin Trott, Field, Birch, Wood, and Tisdale represent the many miniaturists of this period of whom *Edward Greene Malbone* (1777-1807) was the most noted. Born in Boston, he spent most of his short life in Charleston, S. C. "The Hours" his masterpiece; Rebecca Gratz one of the best known.

John Wesley Jarvis, an eccentric figure in old New York and one of the best portrait painters of his day. *Thomas Sully* (1783-1872). His canvases of the Kembles and other celebrated actors, including also a portrait of Queen Victoria,—distinguished for their poetic feeling, grace and refinement. *Matthew Harris Jouett,* 1783-1827. A Kentuckian, a pupil of Stuart and the best painter "west of the mountains." His work chiefly in private collections. *Rembrandt Peale* (son of C. W. Peale), an artist of some note. He established an art gallery in Baltimore. *John Vanderlyn,* one of the first American artists to receive training in France. One of the best technicians of the day. His "Marius" at the Paris Salon

in 1808, awarded a gold medal by Napoleon. His "Ariadne" in the Pennsylvania Academy, our earliest successful study of the nude. *S. F. B. Morse* won a gold medal in London for his statue of the "Dying Hercules;" from 1815 to 1832 painted many portraits. Was the most conspicuous founder of the National Academy. *Robert Fulton* painted miniatures in New York as early as 1785 and at intervals during his long scientific career. *William Dunlap,* artist and author, was the annalist of the period.

4. Formative Influences up to 1876:

Gilbert Stuart exerted an important influence upon the art of this country throughout the early part of the century. He stimulated his fellow students by his passion for truth, his intellectual ability, his quick sympathies and power of grasping the essential features of his subject. His fresh, pure colors, their richness and brilliancy, are very marked. He was broad and liberal in his judgments and stood for the dignity and high purpose of art. By the time of Stuart's death in 1828, Earl, Pratt, Copley, C. W. Peale, and West had all passed away. London influences waned. The Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts had been founded in 1805; the National Academy of Design in New York in 1826. Painting had begun to include *genre* pictures, historical painting and the first attempts at landscape.

Washington Allston succeeded to the supremacy of Stuart. Born in South Carolina, he was educated at Newport and then under West in London. Traveled and studied in Paris and Italy. After several years of successful work in England, returned to America in 1818. His influence felt as a man of poetic temperament, spiritual qualities rather than the more intellectual ones of Stuart; of great personal charm and high artistic standards.

(A) AMONG THE IMPORTANT NAMES OF PORTRAIT PAINTERS OF THIS PERIOD ARE:

Frothingham and Neagle, pupil of Stuart, *Waldo* and *Jewett,* who painted portraits in partnership for eighteen years. *C. B. King* of Washington who bequeathed many of his canvases to the Redwood Library in Newport, and *Francis Alexander,* author of the beautiful portrait of *Mrs. Fletcher Webster* in Boston Museum of Fine Arts. *John Neagle* of Philadelphia has left the best likeness of Stuart painted in 1825. *Ezra Ames* of Albany, a portrait of Governor George Clinton which brought him wide reputation.

Harding, Inman, Elliott, Healy, and *Huntington,* men whose work in portraiture extended over a large part of the century. began also to be felt at this time.

(B) GENRE PAINTING FOUND EXPRESSION IN THE WORKS OF:

William Sidney Mount, who portrayed the every-day life of the people about him; *Charles C. Ingham,* childhood and girlhood; *Eastman Johnson, Winslow Homer* and others life in New England, the South, negro character and incidents of the Civil War.

(C) HISTORICAL PAINTING BEGAN TO DEVELOP UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF:

John Trumbull, who returned to America in 1816. He had painted Washington several times, having been one of his aides, and had studied under West and seen diplomatic service abroad. He executed four large paintings for the rotunda of the capitol at

Washington, 1817-1824. His powers were beginning to wane and the original studies at Yale are more truly typical of his best work. *Emanuel Leutze,* famous for his "Washington Crossing the Delaware," represents the influence of the Düsseldorf school which superseded the English and Italian influence felt by our artists up to the middle of the century.

William Morris Hunt, one of the great names in American art. Born in Vermont. Studied abroad at Düsseldorf. Revolted from the German influence, worked under Couture in Paris and later met Millet who had a marked effect upon his artistic career. His efforts to promote in America the art ideals of France had a far reaching influence.

5. The Development of Landscape and Marine Painting:

From John Smybert's arrival in 1728 to Gilbert Stuart's death in 1828, our first century of American art devoted to portraiture. A new movement began with Thomas Cole's first pictures of Catskill Mountain scenery exhibited in 1828.

Thomas Cole, born in England in 1801 (died 1848), developed a taste for art in his boyhood in Ohio. A book of English engravings his constant companion. Became an itinerant portrait painter. Later in New York three pictures of Hudson River scenery brought him the friendship of Trumbull, Dunlap, and Durand. In later life devoted himself to allegorical landscape but his real fame rests upon his pictures of native scenery. *Thomas Doughty* (1793-1856) is associated with Cole as the earliest of our landscape painters. His pictures of hillside, valley, and river have a genuine charm. *Asher Brown Durand,* 1796, one of the finest of our engravers, took up landscape painting as Cole laid it down. For nearly fifty years, he produced his sincere, simple portrayals of nature.

John F. Kensett, twenty-two years Durand's junior, belonged to the "men of the fifties" who formed the "Hudson River" or "Rocky Mountain" school. The best painter of the latter was *Thomas Moran* who also belongs to a later period. *Bierstadt* painted huge panoramas and *F. E. Church* the most imposing aspects of nature. These "men of the fifties" were a power in their devotion to the portrayal of the beauties of landscape in this country, but they felt the Düsseldorf influence, a lack of spontaneity, weak and unnatural coloring, rigidity of outline, false sentiment, etc.

The New French Spirit. Hunt's return to America in 1855 marked the beginning of French influence in portraying nature, the study of masses of light and shade and breadth of execution contrasted with the old insistence upon details. He was an inspiring teacher and a sympathetic painter of landscapes in great variety. American art students went to Paris in greater numbers each year, and there and at Munich received Europe's most advanced teaching.

In Marine Painting, some of the famous men of the nineteenth century were *William Bradford,* painter of Arctic scenes; *William T. Richards,* the rolling surf; *Edward Moran,* the Bay of Fundy; and *Winslow Homer* still one of the most powerful and original of our marine painters. His sense of motion, of weight, and of force renders his studies of the ocean vastly impressive.

6. Modern Portrait Painting:

The French influence in America, already made effective through Hunt's efforts, culminated in the work of La Farge and Whistler.

James Abbott McNeil Wistler (1834-1903). Educated at West Point. Studied for two years under Gleyre in Paris. As an etcher, had few equals, ancient or modern. Painted in many mediums. Portrait of his mother an example of his most realistic art. Much of his work elusive, delicate, in low tones, seeking to interpret spiritual impressions rather than definite realities. His influence greatly felt by students of art rather than by the general public.

John S. Sargent of American parentage, educated abroad in Italy and France with a visit to Spain. Ranks among the few great artists of today. Portraits strongly individual, unerringly true; broad, sure, dextrous technique, charm and significance of accessories. Lack of spirituality. Skill in portraying *genre* effects. Mural decorations of importance.

William M. Chase, studied at Munich. Important influence as teacher and artist, has held a commanding place in all progressive art movements in this country. Admirable technique, draftsmanship, skill in color and brush work. Great variety of subjects and mediums, oils, water-color, pastel, etc. A painter "delighting in the external aspects of things" also in the "cleverness and skill of craftsmanship."

John W. Alexander. Studied at Munich. Developed peculiar methods of his own: Treatment of background, giving richness by means of a coarse absorbent canvas; omission of unessential details; each picture a color scheme of its own; long sweeping lines; a decorative wall effect as well as a picture; characterizations direct and truthful.

Among present day portrait painters a few of the many important names are *J. Carroll Beckwith, Irving R. Wiles, H. Siddons Mowbray, Frank Fowler, Wilton Lockwood, Cecelia Beaux, Benjamin C. Porter, George De Forest Brush.*

7. Contemporary Figure Painting:

West's Hagar and Ishmael, *Copley's* Venus, Mars and Vulcan, *Trumbull's* Death of Hector, and *Huntington's* Mercy's Dream, typical of the early period of figure painting in which the appeal was moral rather than esthetic.

Theodore Robinson illustrated in his "Girl and Cow" the wider range of subjects now regarded as suitable for the artist's brush. *Elihu Vedder,* an American long resident in Rome. Especially skilled as a draftsman, his greatest work the illustrations for Omar Khayyám; majesty in composition, precision in line and depth of mystery fully interpret the poem.

Will H. Low's "Aurora" is an example of the "academic" painting characteristic today of many of the older artists of the New York group among whom *Blashfield, Mowbray* and *Kenyon Cox* take high rank.

T. W. Dewing's paintings of American women in flowing evening garments show refinement, atmosphere, depth and harmony of color, marked originality. *Abbott H. Thayer* portrays American womanhood of a very dignified and noble type, broadly painted

with masterly handling of light and atmosphere. *George De Forest Brush* depicts fascinating groups of mother and children. In precision, charm of pose and delicacy of drawing, he is unique. *Sergeant Kendall,* admirable portrait and figure work. Shows especial skill in his treatment of children. *Mary Cassatt,* a resident of France, one of our most distinguished painters in her interpretation of French motherhood and her portrayals of peasant life. *Robert F. Blum, William T. Dannat,* and *E. L. Weeks* have found congenial subjects in foreign climes, while *F. D. Millet* has devoted himself to domestic scenes in America. *Gari Melchers,* the most accomplished of our figure painters, resident today in Paris where *Tanner, Hubbell, Van der Weyden, Maurer* and others are doing important work.

The Romantic School is the name betowed upon a recent group of New York painters: *J. Humphreys Johnson, Albert Herter, Bryson Burroughs,* and *Arthur B. Davies.*

The Boston Group of present day figure painters includes Joseph De Camp, F. W. Benson, and E. C. Tarbell, men of the first rank in their skilful and poetic interpretation.

8. Contemporary Mural Painting:

1824-1844 marked the period of historical paintings in the Capitol at Washington. A new spirit came in with Hunt's paintings for the Albany capitol in 1878 and La Farge's wall and roof decorations for Trinity Church, Boston, 1876, later work also by La Farge in Baltimore and St. Paul and the "Ascension" in New York City. Since the Columbian Exposition in 1893 progress in mural painting has been steady. Abbey, Sargent, and Puvis de Chavannes in Boston Library. Men of the Academic group, Kenyon Cox, Blashfield and others, have contributed to the Library of Congress and elsewhere. A new group turning away from Academic traditions and dealing with our own country and time includes among others Howard Pyle, Miss Violet Oakley, and J. W. Alexander.

9. Contemporary Landscape Painting:

As in figure painting Hunt and La Farge marked the transition from conventional methods to untrammeled interpretation of nature, so in landscape, *George Inness, Alexander H. Wyant,* and *Homer D. Martin* have exerted a like influence. Closely in sympathy with the Barbison painters with fine poetic feeling for the many phases of nature. These men represent a whole generation of artists with progressive tendencies. In like manner the following names are typical of modern aspects of the rendering of landscapes.

Among the modern painters of landscape who are doing notable work,, mention may be made of *H. W. Ranger, C. H. Davis, Dwight W. Tryon, Leonard Ochtman, R. C. Minor, R. A. Blakelock, Frank de Haven,* and *Charles Melville Dewey.*

A more realistic group includes *C. H. Davis, Bruce Crane* and *H. Bolton Jones.* The influence of impressionism may be studied in the work of *Childe Hassam, Miss Cassatt, Theodore*

Robinson, J. H. Twachtman, Mrs. Frederick MacMonnies, J. Alden Weir, and *Willard L. Metcalf.*

Four other men who possess "a love of good painting for its own sake" are *E. W. Redfield, W. E. Schofield, Paul Dougherty,* and *Charles Francis Browne.*

CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND READING. By Montrose J. Moses. 4¾x7½. 288 pages. $1.50 net. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

This is a distinctly useful piece of work in an important field, treating the problem so thoroughly that librarian and teacher no less than parent may profit. Mr. Moses pleads for the broadening of children's reading, and warmly advocates the inclusion in children's libraries, whether public or home, of books that are literature as well as "for children." He says "Place first upon your list the best picture-books and jingles. Let true art supplant the comic supplement sheet."

In addition to the entertaining chapters covering the history of children's books from early times to the present date, and those dealing with the general purpose of the books, there is an appendix of 67 pages of book-lists, carefully arranged and classified, including books in various languages, and music lists.

REALITIES OF CHRISTIAN THEOLOGY. By Clarence Augustus Beckwith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. xiv., 406. $2.

Professor Beckwith, seeing the theological perplexity prevailing today, has attempted to show that from the standpoint of experience, however unsatisfactory may be the theoretical expositions of Christian doctrines, they yet represent genuinely vital interests of life, as tested by psychology, ethics, and modern science. The Book bears the subtitle, "An Interpretation of Christian Experience." The reader who comes to it from the modern point of view, however, will probably feel that it is in reality a defense of the historical doctrines of traditional theology—an apologetic which penetrates beneath the form of the doctrine in order to get at its vital kernel. The statement of the author in his preface, that there is universal agreement that "what ever the difference of past or present explanations of Christian belief, the Christian experience of today is essentially the same that it has been from the beginning" will hardly find so universal an assent as he supposes.

Leaving this fundamental criticism of the method of the book, we may express our admiration of the vital way in which Professor Beckwith, with genuine historical sympathy, has penetrated beneath the formal elements of doctrine, and has discovered the essential reality of the great spiritual issues with which theology deals. The Bible is set forth as a book of spiritual experience rather than as a compendium of finished doctrines. God is shown to be a most human-like Father, even to the extent of suffering in order to redeem His children. Sin is defined in terms of ethical delinquency, not in non-moral terms of "nature." Jesus becomes the great spiritual hero of the race, expressing in himself the character of God so that contact with Jesus brings one into contact with God. The religious life is shown to be a real experience of the potency of the presence of God in life. The future is shown to be a dynamic outcome of the processes of life here.

As an example of frankness, religious insight, and broad sympathies, the book is highly to be commended. It shows how the historical statements of doctrine may be made to express the modern religious convictions. Whether the scientific understanding of the fundamental problems of religious experience and of theology will be promoted by this method of interpretation is another question.

MACMILLAN POCKET CLASSICS. Stevenson's "Master of Ballantrae," Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare," Sheridan's "Plays." The Macmillan Co.: New York. 1907. Price 25 cents each.

Every volume added to this comprehensive and convenient series of pocket classics finds a welcome, for each is well edited, attractive in appearance, and eminently usable. Though intended primarily for study purposes and thus well supplied with notes, the volumes are equally well fitted for general reading. The new style of cover in stout gray cloth impressed in blue is serviceable and pretty and the flat backs of the volumes are an improvement over the form of earlier editions.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER. A sketch of his life by Bliss Perry with selected poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.: Boston. 1907. Pp. 111. $1.25 net.

This little volume was published upon the celebration of the centenary of Whittier's birth and serves to call attention to the poet's place in the great abolition movement which preceded the Civil War. Whittier is read today chiefly for his poems of New England life and we are in danger of forgetting his great service to the cause of freedom and justice. His activity as a reformer doubtless militates against Whittier's fame as a poet, for with the triumph of the cause he advocated, his political verse has become little read and the rest of his poetry is somewhat slight in quantity,

as well as uneven in quality. Mr. Bliss Perry who contributes the sympathetic biographical essay which introduces the selections from Whittier's verse duly points out the poet's limitations. But he shows as well why Whittier will retain an honored place in the affections of his countrymen by reason of his militant and unselfish patriotism and as well by reason of certain of his poems of country life which will long be cherished, particularly by New Englanders.

ENGLISH POEMS. Selected and edited with illustrative and explanatory notes and biblographies by Walter C. Bronson, Professor of English Literature, Brown University. The University of Chicago Press: Chicago. 1907. Pp. 619. Library edition $1.50; school edition $1.00.

This anthology, which is confined to the nineteenth century poets of England, is attractive in appearance but not so inclusive as to satisfy all readers. Aside from the omission of some of the old favorites by the poets represented, it is impossible to overlook the entire absence of George Meredith and Rudyard Kipling from the symposium. If Swinburne is to be admitted, these too should be given some space even though scant. It is, of course, a difficult task to satisfy all tastes in making a convenient anthology for study purposes, but the general rule should be observed that selections should be made in a catholic spirit and that all poets of the first and second rank should have a place. Professor Bronson's collection is supplemented by a considerable body of valuable and scholarly notes. These include interesting excerpts from criticisms contemporaneous with the selections given.

THE AGE OF TRANSITION. B. F. J. Snell. The Macmillan Co.: New York. 2 vols. $1.00 each.

The Age of Transition, Mr. Snell determines as 1400-1580, from the death of Chaucer to the beginning of the great Elizabethan period in literature which put forth its best early efforts in the last two decades of the sixteenth century. In this period of nearly two centuries English literature is, for the average reader, practically non-existant except possibly for the "Morte Darthur" of Malory, which is widely known. Nevertheless the period is important as a forerunner to the great Elizabethan epoch and includes a host of minor writers of more or less obscurity. These Mr. Snell brings to light in a straighforward way, devoting one of his volumes to the poets and the second to the dramatists and prose writers.

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